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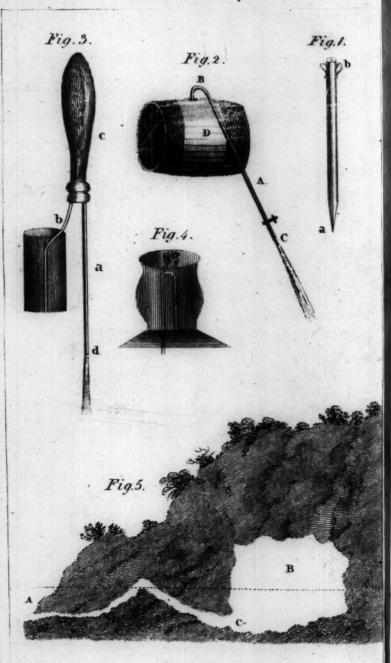
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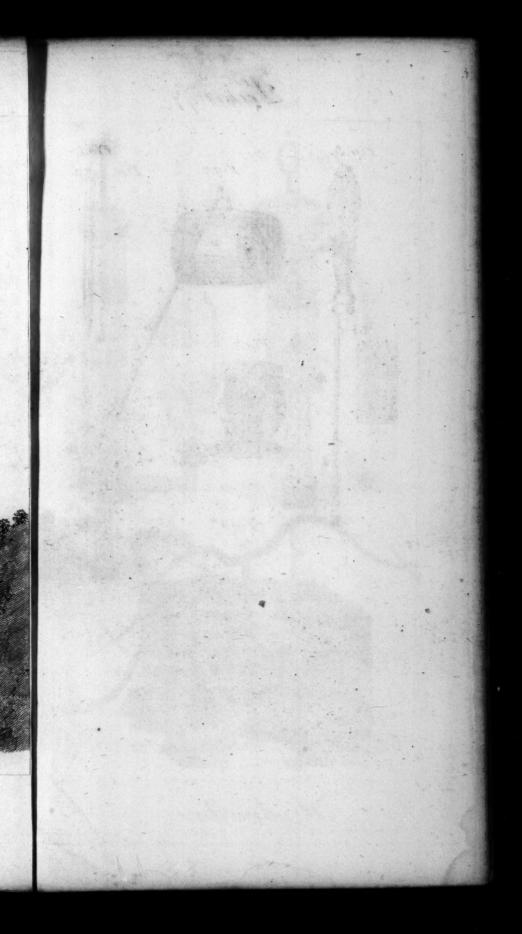
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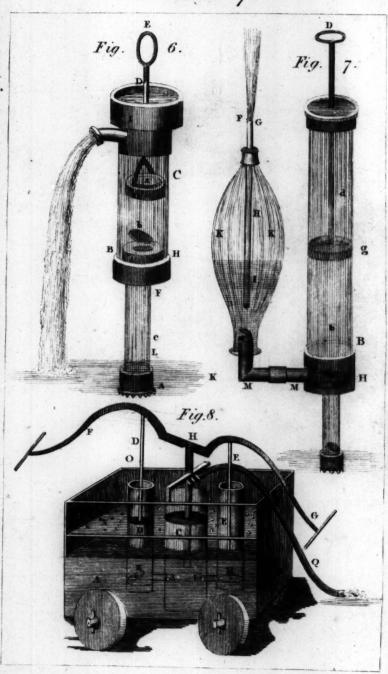
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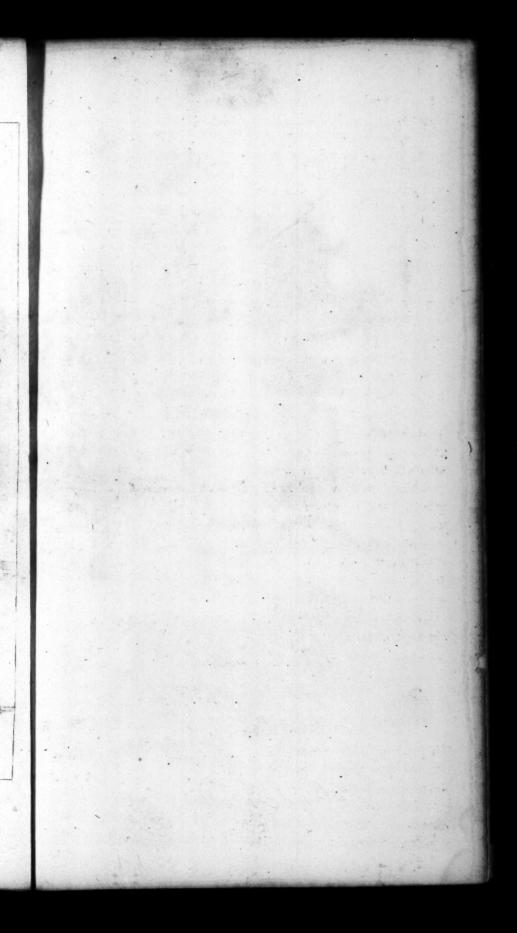
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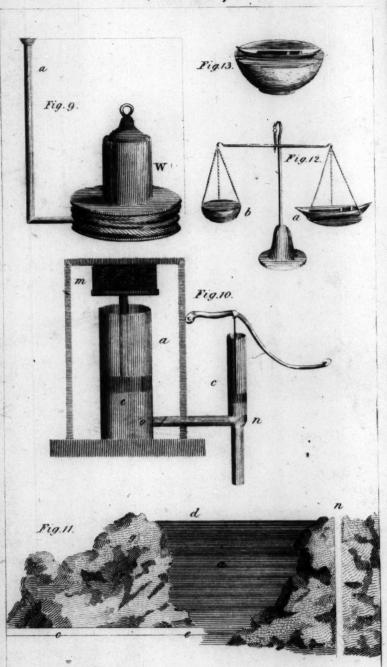
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Lecture 7.



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LECTURES,

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF

YOUNG PERSONS,

ON

Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE VII.

OF HYDRAULICS.

YDROSTATICS, we have feen, is that science which relates to the weight and pressure of sluids; the science of hydraulics teaches us what respects the motion of sluids, and the means of raising them by pumps, and conducting them by pipes or aqueducts from one station to another.

It was laid down as a principle, in the preceding lecture, hat of all waters which communicate with each other, the surface will be level, or, in common language, that water will rife to its level, or to the same height as its source. The reason of this was not fully affigned then, because it was not necessary; it was observed, that sluids press equally on all sides, but the true reason of the level surface of water is the pressure of another sluid, that is, the air or atmosphere, which, as it bears equally on all points of the earth's surface, must equally press the source from which water is derived; and the orifice of the tube or pipe in which it rises, as was evidenced in the three united tubes, which were exhibited as explanatory of this sact.

That water will not flow unless exposed to the preffure of the atmosphere, will be plain from filling a cask or other Vol. II.

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bend of the fyphon, and it will then be drawn off by the longer leg, so that the person shall not only be disappointed of his draught, but will have his clothes well splashed, to the great amusement of the by-standers.

In some parts of the world there are what are called intermittent fprings, or wells which feem to ebb and flow like the tides. This you will eafily perceive to be caused by a natural fyphon. In fig. 5. A is a well of this nature, B is a cavity or refervoir of water under ground, with which it communicates, by means of the pipe or fyphon C. Now it is obvious, that unless the water in the refervoir rises above the height of the bend of the fyphon C, the well cannot be filled; but if by confiderable rains, or any other cause, the reservoir should become full, then the syphon will begin to act, and the water will run into the well as long as there is any water in the refervoir. It will then cease to receive any more, and the drain from the well will empty it in its turn. At Gravesend there is a pond of this kind, which ebbs while the tide is coming into the adjacent river, and fills after the tide has rifen to its height, and all the time that it is ebbing in the river. At Lamtown in Worcestershire, there is also a brook which, in summer, has a ftream sufficient to turn a mill, and the greater part of the winter is destitute of water. This probably communicates by a fyphon with fome cavity in the earth, which is filled by the melting of the snow to a certain height, and after that it will continue to be drawn off by the brook, fo as to

It is by the pressure of the atmosphere that the common or sucking pump is enabled to act. It is said to have been invented by a mathematician of the name of Ctesebes, about one hundred and twenty years before Christ; but the principle on which it acted was unknown till the last century. Mankind, perfectly ignorant that the air had weight, attempted to account for these effects by a maxim not only unfounded, but even destitute of meaning. This was, that Nature abhorred a vacuum." What they meant by Nature is as little to be understood, as when the same word is used by those ignorant and absurd persons who affect to deny the existence of a God. Absurd however as this

furnish a stream till the reservoir is entirely emptied.

by the maxim was, it remained uncontradicted till within these pinted one hundred and fifty years, when it met with a practical ed, to refutation. About that time some workmen were employed y the Duke of Florence, to raife water by a common cking pump to the height of fifty or fixty feet. A pump was accordingly confiructed for that purpose, but, after all heir efforts, they were unable to raise it above the height of hirty-two feet. It was then found either that Nature had not his horror of a vacuum, or, at leaft, that it was a very linited kind of a horror; for why should Nature have a horor of a vacuum at one height and not at another? The matter was referred to the famous aftronomer and philofopher Galileo, but, strange to relate, he was unable to solve

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he difficulty! schiff brown flating the S The difficulty is, however, now explained. You know hat a pump is a hollow piece of timber, to the bore of which a piston, bucket or sucker is exactly fitted. That pifton has a valve in it made with leather, like the clapper of a bellows. When the pifton is forced down, therefore, the air, or any fluid contained in the pump, will force it open; and when the pifton is drawn up, the pressure of the air or water, which has been admitted in that way, will keep the valve down. But to make the matter perfectly clear, let us represent the operation in a glass model. In the annexed plate, fig. 6, is a pump constructed on the plan of a common or fucking pump. Let this pump then, D, C, B, L, be immersed in the vessel of water K. In which case you will fee the water rife as high as L in the pipe or body of the pump. G is the pifton, fucker, or bucket, as it is fometimes called, in which a is the valve; and H is a box made fimilar to the bucket G with a valve in it b, with this difference, that the box H is immovable, and fills the bore of the pump. E is the handle, and D is the rod (which is generally of iron) by which the pifton is raifed. When, therefore, by drawing up the handle E, the piston or bucket is raifed from B to C, the valve and piston being perfectly or nearly air tight, it is obvious that a vacuum is created, that is, there is a space from B to C, from which the air is drawn out. This, however, is in some measure supplied

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by the air from below, which enters through the valve b, which it opens by its force. It is evident, however, that this air must be exceedingly dilated, by its now occupying fo much more space than it did before. The force or spring of the air, therefore, within the pump, is fo much weakened, that it is not able to refift the preffure of the external air upon the water. The external air, therefore, preffing upon the furface of the water, forces it to afcend through the notched foot of the pump A, perhaps as high as e in the body or bore of the pump. By another stroke of the piston G, or by causing it to descend, the upper valve a is again opened by the force or fpring of the air, and the valve below (b) is thut by the same pressure. Thus by the descent of the piston, all the air which was included between the box H and the space C, to which the piston was before raifed, will rife above the valve a in the pifton, and by drawing it up, the valve a will again be shut, and a second vacuum created as before, which again will be filled by the air from below, ascending through the lower valve b. The fpring of the air being thus weakened by this fecond motion, the pressure of the atmosphere without the pump will cause the water again to ascend within it, we will suppose to f. By the next stroke the air will be almost entirely exhausted, and the water will rise in the body of the pump above the box H, perhaps as high as B. On forcing down the pifton or bucket again, the valve b in the box H will be thut by the preffure as before, and the valve a in the piston G will be opened by the same pressure, and confequently water instead of air will now be raised by the elevation of the pifton. When the pifton is thus raised, it is evident that a vacuum will again be created between the box H and the piston G, which will instantaneously be filled up. by the water flowing through the valve b, as before described. Thus, by the continual working of the pump, the water will be raifed by the pifton into the wider space I, and caused to flow through the spout F. Every time the piston or bucket is raised, the valve b is listed up by the water beneath, and every time the pifton or bucket is forced down, the valve a rifes, and the valve b is depressed. For

For the eafiness of working in common pumps, the red D s fixed to a handle, which acts as a lever, and turns on a

pin in the body of the pump.

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The difficulty is, however, yet unexplained to you repecting the pump of the Duke of Florence; and you do not yet understand why the water would rise in it no higher than thirty-two feet. Recollect, however, what was faid respecting the cause of the water's rising in the body of the pump. You know it was the pressure of the atmosphere on the furface of the water without that forced it to rife. From this circumstance it is evident that the air has weight. But again, as the atmosphere, or that mass of air which furrounds the globe, is only of a limited height (supposed about forty-five miles), it follows that its weight or preffure must be limited also; and it is found that a column of water of thirty-two or thirty-three feet high, is equal in weight to a column of air of the same diameter or thickness the whole height of the atmosphere. Consequently the pressure of the atmosphere can never force water through any vacant space higher than thirty-three feet. By the action of a common pump of four inches bore and thirty feet high, a fingle man can discharge twenty-seven gallons and an half of water in a minute; if the pump is only ten feet above the furface of the well, the quantity discharged in that time is eighty-one gallons fix pints.

The forcing pump is upon a different plan. Here the piston is without a valve, and the water which rifes through the valve in the box is forced out by the depression of the folid piston. Thus in fig. 7, when the piston or plunger g is lifted up by the rod Dd, the water beneath forces up the valve b in the box H, and rifes into the body or barrel of the pump above BC. When the piston g, therefore, (which you will observe has no hole or valve in it) is depressed to B, the valve b being closed by this action, the water in the barrel of the pump, finding no other vent, is forced into the pipe M M, and so up through the pipe N. If there is no occasion for a continued stream of water, the pipe N is continued to any given height, and then the water would be thrown out like a jet-d'eaux at every stroke of the piston.

But

But to make a continued stream a further contrivance is ne-

ceffary.

To this end an air-veffel, such as KK, is annexed to the pipe N, and into this air-veffel the water is forced by each stroke of the piston. When therefore the water, by this action continued, gets above the lower end of the pipe GHI, which is fixed air-tight in the veffel below F, the air in the upper part is proportionably condensed. The action of the pump being then continued, in proportion as the veffel KK is filled with water, the air above it presses on its surface, and drives out the water through the pipe FHGF, at the orifice F, in a continued stream, and with great force.

It is upon this principle that the famous and truly useful invention of the fire-engine is founded. It confifts of two forcing pumps, and a large air veffel which communicates with the pipe. In figure 8, A B is the body of the engine, in which the water is contained, D and E are two forcing pumps, wrought by the common lever FG, moving on the center H. The easiest mode of supplying the engine with water, is that which is usually employed in London in cases of fire, when a leather pipe communicates with the orifice of one of the pipes which supplies the city with water. When this cannot be done, the water is poured by buckets into the veffel AB, and being strained through the wire grating N, is, by the pressure of the atmosphere, raised (as before described in treating of the forcing pump) through the valves K and M, into the barrels D and E, when either of the forcers ascend, and at their descent it will be forced through the valves I and L alternately, into the air-veffel EC, the common air, therefore, in this veffel being very. strongly compressed, by its spring it will force, the water up through the metal pipe P, into the leather one Q, which, being flexible, may be directed to any part of the building where the flames predominate.

By the means of forcing pumps water may be raifed to any height above the level of a stream or spring, provided the machinery is sufficiently powerful to work them. The London Bridge water-works, which supply the city of London with water, consist of a certain number of forcing

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de. There is also a beautiful engine of this kind at the luke of Marlborough's, at Blenheim.

The most powerful forcing pumps, however, are wrought y steam engines, for steam is one of the strongest powers in nature. The steam engine consists of a large cylinder or barrel, in which is nieely sitted a solid piston, like that of a orcing pump. The steam is supplied from a large boiler close by, and is admitted into the cylinder by an orifice, which can be occasionally shut. The force of the steam lists the piston, to the top of which is affixed a long lever to work a forcing pump, or for any other purpose; and when the piston is listed a certain height, it opens a small valve in the top of the cylinder, through which a small quantity of cold water being admitted the steam is condensed, and thus a vacuum being created, the piston again descends, and is again listed up by the force of the steam.

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE EAGLE.

INNÆUS has, with propriety, classed the eagles and falcons both under one genus, as their generic character seems perfectly the same. He enumerates thirty-two species. Mr. Ray and Brisson separate the eagles from the falcons: the former has eight species of eagles and twenty-five of falcons; the latter fifteen eagles and thirty-seven of hawks. Such is the uncertainty of classification, that one naturalist considers as a species what another only marks as a variety.

The eagle is considered as by far the noblest and most generous of the rapacious birds. The golden eagle was sacred to Jupiter; the Persians, and after them the Romans, assumed this bird for their ensign in war; one was represented on the standard carried before each legion. They in general inhabit mountainous and rocky countries; some species of them are to be found almost in every quarter of the world; several different kinds inhabit Britain.

So great is the native fiercenels of the eagle, that hardly

any effort will render it fo tame and familiar as to qualify it for the chace. We are informed that they were antiently employed for this purpose in the east; but we have long fince banished them from our system of falconry. They are too heavy to be able, without great fatigue, to outfirip the game, and never fo tame and gentle, but their caprices or rage are some moments formidable to their keepers. Their beaks and claws are hooked and frightful. Every part of their figure corresponds to their disposition; for, independent of these arms, the whole body is compact and robust; their legs and wings are firong, and their feathers hard; their movements quick, and flight rapid.

The eagle, of all birds, flies the highest in the air; for which he obtained from the antients the name of the bird of heaven, and was regarded in their omens as the meffenger of Jove. His fense of fight is also exquisite, but in that of imelling he is far inferior to the vulture; he only chaces by fight, and, as foon as he has feized his prey, drops from his height, as if to examine its weight, always laying it on the ground before he carries it off. Although his wings are strong, yet as he has not much suppleness in his legs, he finds it difficult, especially when laden with prey, to rise from the ground. He easily, however, carries off geese, cranes, lambs, and kids; but when he attacks fawns or calves it is to glut himself with blood upon the spot, and to carry away pieces of their flesh to his airie, which is the name given to his nest.

. It is afferted that the same nest serves the eagle the whole of its life; and it feems indeed to be of fuch a bulk, and of fuch durable materials, that a frequent repair is hardly necessary. It is commonly of a flat form, built of large sticks, upon the dry and inaccessible part of a rock, lined with several layers of reeds or brambles: it is several feet in breadth, and of such strength as may support, not only the eagle and her young, but also a large quantity of food which the lays up in ftore for them. In the middle of this airie does the female deposit two or three eggs, which she continues to hatch for thirty days. Rarely, however, are the whole even of that small number productive; two, and fometimes one eaglet, is the extent of her family; the smaller kinds indeed are more prolific, but the

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he whole race is marked by its infecundity. It is reported hat they fometimes still farther diminish the number of their ffspring, by putting to death the most feeble or most voratious. It is certain that they are no sooner able to fly than hey banish them from the nest, without ever allowing hem to return. Famine is probably the cause of a conduct eemingly so repugnant to nature.

Eagles are remarkably voracious at all times, but more paricularly in the breeding feason. It is then that they spread devastation among the kids, lambs, and all forts of game. Smith, in his history of Kerry, relates, that a poor man in that country got a comfortable subsistence for his family. during a fummer of famine, by robbing the eaglets of the food that was carried to the nest by the parents. He ingeniously protracted the time of their imbecillity, by clipping their wings and retarding their flight. If what is related by Goldsmith be true, this is rather a dangerous undertaking: for had the old eagles furprized the countryman while thus employed, their revenge might have proved fatal to him. "It happened some time ago," fays that writer, " in the fame country, that a peafant had refolved to rob the neft of an eagle, that had built in a small island in the beautiful lake of Killearney. He accordingly stripped and swam in uponthe island, while the old ones were away; and having robbed the neft of its young, he was preparing to fwim back. with the eaglets tied in a ftring; but while he was yet up to his chin in the water, the old eagles returned, and, missing their young, quickly fell upon the plunderer, and, in fpite of all his refistance, dispatched him with their beaks and talons."

Martin records instances of two children being carried off by eagles at the breeding season; but fortunately the thest was discovered in time, and the children were restored unhurt out of the nests to their affrighted parents. It was probably from some daring adventure of this kind that the sable took its rise, of Ganymede's being snatched up to heaven by an eagle. They seem to have been extremely numerous and destructive in the n rthern parts of Britain. Camden mentions a law in the Orkney isles, which entitles

every

every person that kills an eagle to an hen out of every house of the parish where the act was done.

The colours of the plumage of the eaglets are not for firong as they afterwards become in their adult state; at first they are white, afterwards of a pale yellow, and then of a deeper and brighter hue of the same colour. Age, famine, long captivity, and difeases, make them gradually whiter. It is afferted that they live above an hundred years, and that, even after so long a period, it is not so much from old age they die, as from the impossibility of taking food, their bills being too crooked and incapable of receiving it, The eagles are not less remarkable for their power of suftaining a long abstinence from food, than for their longevity, Mr. Pennant mentions one in the poffession of Owen Holland, Eig. of Conway, which he had kept for nine years, and the gentleman from whom he had received it thirtytwo. To the latter it had been fent from Ireland, but at what age is not known. The abstinence of this bird was cruelly tried by the neglect of fervants, who had fuffered it to endure hunger for twenty-one days without receiving any fustenance whatever.

Eagles, when tamed, M. Buffon afferts, can be fed with any kind of flesh whatever, even with that of their own species; and, on a deficiency of flesh, they will readily devour bread, serpents, or lizards. When they are but imperfectly tamed, they attack dogs, cats, men, and every creature that attempts to approach them: their fierceness is rendered still more formidable by the shrill, piercing, and lamentable cries which they utter. They drink but seldom, and, when in a state of freedom, probably none at all, the blood of animals then serves to quench their thirst.

THE GOLDEN EAGLE.

The whole body of this bird, above as well as beneath, is of a dark brown; the feathers on the back are finely shaded with a deeper hue of the same colour; the neck and head are covered with narrow sharp pointed feathers of a reddish iron; the bill is three inches long, and of a deep blue; the tail is of a deep brown, irregularly barred with

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ith an an obscure ash-colour; the legs are short and strong, covered with tawny iron coloured feathers down to the feet; the breadth of its wings, when extended, is seven feet sour inches. It is an inhabitant of Britain, and most other countries of Europe.

The wings and limbs of the golden eagle are remarkable for strength; his bones are firm, and his feathers hard. He is of a fierce and haughty aspect; his slight is rapid, and all his motions indicate vigour and activity. Of all birds this species is, perhaps, capable of taking the highest slights, and, on this account probably, it obtained the office of messenger of Jove in the fanciful mythology of the antients. The fight of this animal is quick and piercing, the index of a bold and independent spirit; such at least are the attributes ascribed to it by the poet, who stiles a hero, "Lord of the lion heart and eagle eye."

THE COMMON EAGLE

Is larger than a turkey-cock, being three feet from the point of the bill to the top of the tail. The whole body is of a deep brown tinged with rust colour; and it is distinguished by a remarkable band of white upon the upper part of the tail. The legs are feathered to the feet; the toes are yellow, and the claws black. It inhabits high mountains, and builds in the cliffs of a rock.

The common eagles are much more numerous, and more extensively spread than the golden eagles already described. They are found dispersed over the cold as well as the warm latitudes, in the new, as well as the old world. They are seen in France, Switzerland, Germany, Poland, Scotland.

THE BALD EAGLE.

The body is brown; the head, neck, and rectrices of the tail, white; the upper part of the legs are covered with brown feathers. It is found in Europe and North America.

The manners of this species are still more cruel and unnatural than those of the common eagle; it is more slothful and voracious, consequently lies under a stronger necessity of destroying or banishing its young, for which it is incapable to provide sufficient supplies of food.

This voracity appears among the young, which, at a Vol. II.

very early period, contend for the meat brought them by the parents with so much serceness and avidity, that they are forced to put an end to the dispute, by putting to death one of the combatants. This species of eagle, too, commonly attacks large animals with a view of drinking their blood upon the spot; and as they permit no corrupted slesh to remain in their nest, the young must often be unprovided; those larger animals being much more seldom surprized than the humbler victims of the common eagle's hunger. It has farther been remarked that the bald eagle chaces only for a few hours in the middle of the day, while the common eagle is plentifully supplied by the efforts of a valour far more vigilant and indefatigable.

THE WHITE EAGLE

Is white over the whole body. It inhabits the Alps, and the rocks upon the banks of the Rhine.

THE SPOTTED EAGLE

Is of a deep iron colour, spotted under the wings and on the legs with white; the feathers of the tail are white at the beginning and at the top; the leg feathers are of a dirty brown; its talons are black and extremely sharp; it lives principally upon rats, and is found in Europe.

THE FAWN KILLER, OR ERNE.

The bill of this bird is rather straighter than is usual in the eagle, and probably for this reason it is classed by Linnæus among the vultures; but it has no claim to be ranked in that genus, for it is wholly seathered; whereas the characteristical mark of the vulture is, that the head and neck are either quite bare or covered with down. Both Sibbald and Martin describe this species, which they say is found in Scotland, and is extremely destructive to deer; it seizes this animal between the horns, and by constantly beating him about the eyes with its wings, he falls at last a victim to its sury. The body and wings of the erne are of a deep brown, the quill seathers very dark, the tail white, and the legs yellow and bare.

THE BLACK EAGLE

Is of a blackish colour; the head and upper neck-mixed with red; the tail feathers have one-half speckled with white

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white and black, the other half blackish; legs covered to the feet with dirty white feathers. It is uncertain whether any of this species have been seen in Britain.

THE OSPREY, OR SEA EAGLE,

Is inclining to white, with a mixture of brown; the belly is white, with iron coloured spots; the covert feathers of the wing whitish, those of the tail black at their extremities. This species is found in Ireland and several parts of Great Britain. The nakedness of the legs of this bird s an indication that it feeks its prey on the waters; and all writers agree that it feeds principally upon fish, which it catches in its talons as they are fwimming near the furface. It even takes falmon by the backs in this manner, and not by diving down upon them, as some have supposed. In consequence of these habits, the sea eagle builds its nest apon the shore; or on the sides of rivers; it lays three or four white eggs, less than those of a hen, and of an ellinical form. Willoughby mentions that an eagle, which had its airie in the county of Westmoreland, soared alost nto the air with a cat in its talons. The refistance of the cat brought both animals to the ground, when Barlow the engraver took them up, and afterwards caused the event to be engraven in his collection of plates.

The ofprey is in fize not inferior to the largest of this gehus, being about three feet and an half in length, and about even feet from tip to tip of the wings. It is distinguished by a barb of feathers which hangs down below its chin, and which has procured it the name of the bearded eagle. The claws of this bird are admirably fitted for the purposes o which nature feems to have destined it; they form an ntire semicircle, and are therefore retentive of the slippery rey. Thus accomplished, the ofprey takes up its abode pon the shore, or in the vicinity of fresh water lakes and ivers where fishes are plenty. Though he plunders the vaters, his devastations are not always confined to that elenent alone; every kind of fowl and game being at times he victim of his rapacity. He carries off geese, hens, ambs, and kids. By these means his young, as well as imself, are amply supplied with food. And it is even af-

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firmed by Ariftotle that the female ofprey not only nourishes her young with affection, but also extends her regard to the miferable eaglets of the other species which have been expelled by their parents, and adopts them into her family.

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY. No. VII.

THE LIFE OF FRIAR BACON.

HE name of Friar Bacon is familiar even to youth, but he is more generally regarded as a magician than as the father and founder of modern philosophy. From the life of Roger Bacon, indeed, we may learn, that genius and truth, like those plants most useful and falutary to mankind, will fcarcely thrive in a foil and fituation not favourable to their culture. His discoveries in science, addreffed to an ignorant age, incapable of receiving them, only brought upon their author perfecution and obloquy; and it was not till after the lapfe of years that they received that tribute of applause to which they were so justly entitled.

This extraordinary person was descended of an antient family, and born near Ilcheffer in Somersetshire, in the year 1214. He received the first tincture of learning at Oxford, whence he went to the university at Paris, at that time much frequented by the English, of whom the most distinguished for their learning and abilities highly careffed him. Having been admitted to the degree of doctor, he came back to England, and took the habit of the Franciscan order in 1240, when he was about twenty-fix years of age; but, according to others, he became a monk before he left France. After his return he was confidered as a most able and an indefatigable enquirer after knowledge by the greatest men of that univerfity, who generously contributed to defray the expences of advancing science by experiments, the method which he had determined to follow. His discoveries, however, were little understood by the generality of mankind; and because, by the help of mathematical knowledge, he performed things bove common understandings, he was suspected of magic. He was persecuted particularly by his own fraternity, fo they would not receive his works into

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into their library, and at last had interest enough with the general of their order to get him imprisoned; fo that, as he confesses himself, he had reason to repent of his having taken fuch pains in the arts and sciences. In order to justify himself, he appealed to the court of Rome, and, at the particular desire of Pope Clement IV., collected together and enlarged his feveral pieces, and fent them to him in 1267. This collection, which is the same that he himself intitled Opus Majus, or his Great Work, is still extant. In this work he feems to have proposed two principal objects, either by laying down a good scheme of philosophy to excite the Pope to reform the errors that had crept into the church; or, if he could not effect this, to propose such expedients as would break its power and retard its progress. For he appears to have been firmly perfuaded that the church would foon be reformed, either by means of the Pope himself, who was a man of integrity, or because the exorbitant dominion of the court of Rome would become obnoxious to mankind, and fo fall to destruction.

When Baoon had been ten years in prison, Jerom d'Ascoli, general of his order, who had condemned his doctrine. was chosen Pope, and affumed the name of Nicholas IV. Ashe was reputed a perion of great abilities, and one who had turned his thoughts to philosophical studies, Bacon resolved to apply to him for his discharge; and in order to shew both the innocence and the usefulness of his studies, addressed to him a treatife on the means of avoiding the infirmities of old age. What effect this treatise had on the Pope does not appear. But, towards the latter end of his reign, Bacon, by the interposition of some noblemen, obtained his release, and returned to Oxford, where he spent the remainder of his days in peace, and died in the college of his order on the 11th of June, 1294. "He was," fays Dr. Shaw, "beyond all comparison, the greatest man of his time; and might, perhaps, stand in competition with the greatest that kind; have appeared fince. It is wonderful, confidering, the igge, he norant; age wherein he lived, how he came by fuch a depth e was of knowledge on all subjects. His writings are composed: by his with that elegancy, concidencis, and firength, and adorned works with fuch just and exquisite observations on nature, that, into

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among all the chemifts, we do not know his equal. In his Treatise of the secret Works of Art and Nature, he shews that a person who was perfectly acquainted with the manner which nature observes in her operations, would be able to rival her. In another piece, of the Nullity of Magic, he thews, with great fagacity and penetration, whence the notion forung, and how weak all pretences to it are. From a repeated perufal of his works," adds the fame skilful chemift. " we find our Friar was no stranger to many of the capital discoveries of the present and past ages. Gunpowder he certainly knew: thunder and lightning, he tells us, may be produced by art; for that fulphur, nitre, and charcoal, which when separate have no sensible effect, yet when mixed together in a due proportion, and closely confined and fired, they yield a loud report. A more precise defer ption of gunpowder cannot be given in words; and yet a jefuit, Barthol. Schwartz, fome ages after, has had the glory of the discovery. He likewise mentions a fort of inextinguishable fire prepared by art, which shews he was not unacquainted with phosphorus; and that he had a notion of the rarefaction of the air, and the structure of an air-pump, is past contradiction," Dr. Freind ascribes the honour of introducing chemistry into Europe to Bacon, who, he obferves, speaks in some part or other of his works, of almost every operation now used in chemistry, and describes the method of making tinctures and elixirs. " He was the miracle," fays Freind, " of the age he lived in, and the greatest genius, perhaps, for mechanical knowledge which over appeared in the world fince Archimedes: he appears likewise to have been master of the whole science of optics." He has very accurately described the uses of reading-glasses, and thewn the way of making them. Dr. Freind remarks, that he also describes the camera obscura, and all forts of glaffes which magnify or diminish any object, bring it nearer to the eye, or remove it farther off. Bacon tells us himself that he had great numbers of burning-glasses; and that there were none ever in use among the Latins, till his friend, Peter de Maharn Curia, applied himfelf to the making of them. That the telescope was not unknown to him, is evident from a passage wherein he says, that he was able ws inble

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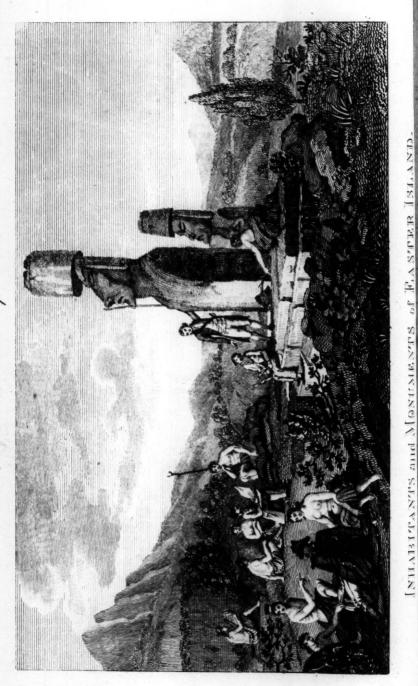
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to form glaffes in fuch a manner, with respect to our fight and the objects, that the rays shall be refracted and reflected wherever we pleafe, fo that we may fee a thing under what angle we think proper, either near or at a distance, and be able to read the smallest letters at an incredible distance, and to count the dust and fand, on account of the greatness of the angle under which we fee the objects; and also that we shall scarcely see the greatest bodies near us, on account of the smallness of the angle under which we view them. His skill in astronomy was amazing: he discovered that error which occasioned the reformation of the calendar; one of the greatest efforts, according to Dr. Jebb, of human industry: and his plan for correcting it was followed by Pope Gregory XIII. with this variation, that Bacon would have had the correction to begin from the birth of our Saviour, whereas Gregory's amendment reaches no higher than the Nicene Council.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF EASTER-ISLAND.

ASTER-ISLAND, fituated in the South-Sea, about twenty-feven degrees north latitude, and a hundred and eleven degrees west-longitude, was discovered in 1686, by an Englishman of the name of Davis. It was visited in the year 1722, by a Dutchman, who gave it the name of Easter-Island, and upon his return home published many sabulous accounts concerning the country and its inhabitants. We have, however, now, in both these respects, every authentic information which can be desired, as well from Captain Cook and Mr. Forster, who visited Easter-Island in the month of March, 1774, as from M. De La Pérouse, who made a voyage round the world in 1785, and the three following years.

From these celebrated navigators we learn, that the Island is of a triangular form, from ten to twelve leagues in circumference: the hills upon it are so high, that they

may be feen at the distance of fifty or fixty miles.

The island itself is extremely barren, and bears evident marks,

marks, not only of a volcanic origin, but of having been greatly injured by fome late eruptions. The shore confilts of broken rocks, whose cavernous appearance, and black or ferruginous colour, feem to indicate that they had been thrown up by subterraneous fire. In many parts of the country, the ground is completely covered with rock and stones of all fixes. This renders the roads intolerably rugged, and to Europeans almost unpassable, though the natives leap from stone to stone with surprising agility. These stones, which are so troublesome to pedestrians, are of great use to the country, by contributing to the freshness and moisture of the ground. They partly supply the wantof the falutary shade of trees which, it is supposed, the inhabitants were fo imprudent as to cut down, in remotetimes, by which the island lies fully exposed to the rays of: the fun, and is deftitute of running streams and springs. It is a fact now well afcertained, that in little islands furrounded by an immense ocean, the coolness of land covered with trees can alone stop and condense the clouds, and thus attract to mountains rain sufficient to form springs and. rivulets on all fides.

The people in the island are of a middle-fize; and in general thin. They go entirely naked; their faces are painted red, and they are tattooed on several parts of the body, a custom which is very common to all the inhabitants of the South-Sea islands, and which we have described in our lattenumber. The greatest peculiarity belonging to these people is, the size of their ears, the lobe of which is stretched out so that it almost rests upon their shoulder. The chiefornaments for their ears are the white down of feathers, and rings made of the leaf of the sugar-cane, which is very elastic, and for this purpose is rolled up something in the manner of a watch-spring. Some of them wear garments like those which are used by the inhabitants of Otaheite, tinged of a bright orange-colour; these were supposed by Captain Cook to be the chiefs of the country.

The natural colour of their skin is a chesnut brown; their hair is black, curling, and remarkably strong. The women are small, and slender limbed: they have punctures on the face, resembling the patches sometimes used by European.

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ropean ladies: they paint their faces all over with a reddish brown, and above this they lay a fine orange-colour extracted from the turmeric root; the whole is then variegated with streaks of white shell lime.

Although the coast appears not deficient in fish, yet the inhabitants live chiefly on vegetables, such as potatoes, yams, bananas, sugar-canes, and a small fruit which grows upon the rocks on the sea-shore, resembling the grapes that are found in parts adjacent to the tropic in the Atlantic Ocean.

The fields are cultivated with a confiderable degree of skill. The inhabitants root up the grafs, lay it in heaps to dry, after which they burn it, and use the ashes as manure for the land. The banana trees are planted in a strait line. The garden night-shade is cultivated here, but for what purpose is not certain: if they had any vessels which would bear the heat of fire, it might be dressed in the same manner as spinage is cooked in other places; but they have no other method of cooking their provisions than that described in our account of Otaheite, which consists in digging a hole, and covering their yams and potatoes with red-hot stones and embers, mixed with earth, so that every thing which they eat is cooked as in an oven.

The same mechanical arts which are practifed in the Society Isles, are also familiar to the inhabitants of Easter-Island, though for want of raw materials, they have much sewer means of exercising them. Their canoes have the same form, but are composed of very narrow planks, four or five feet long, and at most can carry but four men. Owing, perhaps, to the scarcity of wood for their canoes, they have learned to do, in a great measure, without them. They swim so expertly, that, in the most tempestuous sea, they will sometimes go two leagues from the shore, and in returning to land, often, by way of frolic, choose those places where the surf breaks with the greatest surv.

It is computed that not more than one-tenth part of the land in the island is under cultivation, and that three days labour is sufficient to procure the annual subsistence of each inhabitant. The great ease with which the necessaries of life are obtained, has induced Europeans to conclude, that

the productions of the earth are enjoyed in common. This opinion is confirmed by the confirmation and fize of their houses, which are certainly the common property of a whole district or village. One of these houses being meafured, was found to be three hundred and ten seet in length, ten seet broad, and about ten seet high in the middle; its form was that of a canoe reversed: the only entrances were by two doors, two seet high, through which it is necessary to creep on hands and seet. This house was capable of containing more than two hundred persons; and being without furniture, it is evident that it could not be intended for the habitation of any chief; but formed of itself a village, with two or three small houses at a little distance from it.

From the structure of the houses, and from the manners of the women, which are the most dissolute, perhaps, that have ever been noticed in any country, it is inferred that the semale sex is common to the whole district, and the chikiren are the common property of the state: certainly no Indian appears to possess any authority as a husband over

any one of the women.

Besides the houses already noticed, there are others built' entirely with reeds, which proves that there are marshy places in the interior of the island. The reeds are very skilfully arranged, and are a sufficient desence against the pain. The building is supported by pillars of stone, formed out of the lava; in these, at equal distances, holes are bored sufficient to admit long poles, or planks, which form an arched frame, the space between is filled up with reed thatch. There are also subterraneous caverns, which they make use of as safe retreats for their women and children at the approach of danger.

is, a number of Colossian statues, (see the Plate) of which, however, very sew remain entire. These statues are placed only on the sea-coast. On the east side of the island are the ruins of three platforms or terraces of stone-work, on each of which had stood sour large statues, but most of them are fallen down and broken, or defaced in the fall. One of these measured sisteen feet in length, and six broad over the

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shoulders: each statue had on its head a large cylindric stone of a red colour, wrought perfectly even and round. Others were found that measured nearly twenty-seven seet, and eight or nine seet over the shoulders; and one still larger was standing, in the year 1774, the shade of which was sufficient to shelter thirty persons from the rays of the sun. But the largest which remained, when M. de la Pérrouse visited the island, measured only sourteen seet six inches in height, seven seet six inches in breadth across the shoulders, three seet in thickness round the belly, and sive seet thick at the base.

The workmanship is rude, but not bad, nor are the features of the face ill-formed; the ears are long according to the diffortion practifed in the country, and the bodies have hardly any thing of a human figure about them. These monuments, which are evidently of considerable antiquity, while they shew the small progress made in the art of sculpture, exhibit strong proofs of the ingenuity and perseverance of the islanders in the age in which they were erected. How persons wholly unacquainted with the advantages of the mechanical powers, could raife fuch stupendous figures, and then place the large cylindric stones upon their heads, seems at first fight truly astonishing. The stone of which they are composed is known among naturalists by the name of Lapillo; it is foft and light, and therefore Captain Cook thought it would be easy, with levers a few yards long, and by flipping stones underneath, to lift a much heavier weight; a hundred men or even fewer would be sufficient for the purpose.

All the monuments which are at this time in existence are situated in morais, or burying places; and were probably erected in honour of persons who had been chiefs in the island. That a constant succession have not been kept up may be accounted for from the nature of their present government, which seems to have so far equalized their condition, that there has not for ages past existed among them a chief of sufficient consequence to excite the attention and regard of those who have survived him; or of sufficient authority to employ a number of men in erecting a statue to perpetuate his own memory. There are, however, chiefs in the

country, but they do not appear to be possessed of any other consequence than that of superintending the plantations in every district.

The coloffal images are at present superseded by small pyramidal heaps of stones, the topmost of which is white washed. This species of mausolea, which are not the work of an hour for a single man, are piled upon the sea shore.

One of the natives shewed M. de La Pérouse that these stones covered a tomb, by laying himself down at full length on the ground; afterwards, raising his hands towards the sky, he appeared, evidently, desirous of expressing the idea that they believed in a future state of existence. This, however, seems rather extraordinary, since no traces of worship are to be discovered; nor are there any grounds for supposing that the statues are used as idols, although the Indians shew some kind of veneration for them.

The inhabitants of this island are hospitable, but greatly addicted to thest. While they are presenting a stranger with potatoes and sugar-canes, they never let an opportunity slip of robbing him, if it can be done with impunity. In rendering an European any service or affishance, they will not fail to pay themselves for the trouble, by snatching from him his hat or handkerchief, with which they escape at full speed. And though others of them will pretend to follow him in order to recover the property, yet it is only with a view of eluding the attention of the person thus plundered.

From the various methods which they use in committing their continual depredations, it has been inferred that in the arts of roguery and hypocrify they are far superior to the most experienced villains in Europe. And though it is certain that these people have not the same ideas of these that we have, perhaps, even, no shame is attached to it, yet they are aware that the action is unjust, since they immediately take to slight in order to avoid the punishment they seared, as the natural consequence of the offence.

The water of Easter-Island is in general brackish, there being only one well that is perfectly fresh, which is at the east end of the island: and whenever they repair to it to slake their thirst, they wash themselves all over, and if

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there is a large company, the first leaps into the middle of the hole, drinks, and washes himself without ceremony; after which another takes his place, and so on in succession.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

On Tafte, Literature, and the Art of Composition.

CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO HIS SON.

LETTER VII.

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> TOU will recollect that I arranged the general qualities of a good ftyle under two diftinct heads, perspicuity and ornament. The first of these I have already considered, and, I might add, the latter also, as far as respects single words or their mufical arrangement in fentences or periods. I have now to treat of that most important part of ornament, which is what rhetoricians generally understand by tropes and figures. These add, it must be allowed, greatly to the beauty of composition or discourse. We are not, however, to imagine that we are to use words that are uncommon or unnatural to embellish or decorate our compofition: figurative language when employed should always arise naturally from the subject, without ever appearing to be fought. By these means, when directed by judgment, we raise and enliven our style. Thus we say, "the good man receives comfort in adverfity," and the expression is plain and simple; but if we should fay, "to the upright there arises light in darkness," the language becomes metaphorical, and makes a stronger impression. Tropes or figures may be called that fort of language prompted by the imagination and paffions. They may be divided into two kinds, figures of thought and figures of language; the latter depend entirely upon words, and if they are changed the figure is loft; for instance, in the example just now mentioned, if we substitute comfort and adversity instead of light and darkness, the expression becomes plain and simple. In figures of thought, fuch as exclamation and apostrophe, Vol. II.

the words may be changed and translated from any language to another without any change in the figure. Those figures which consist only in words are called tropes, from the Greek tropos, manner, because they depend on the manner or form in which the word is used.

Before we proceed, however, it will not be improper to inquire- into the origin of figures; they may be partly owing to the barrenness of language, partly to the influence of the imagination. As the number of our ideas are almost infinite, so words may be multiplied ad infinitum, were we to have a separate word for every new idea. In order, therefore, to shorten the endless task, men expressed such things as had a real or imaginary refemblance by the same word. The use of words in a metaphorical sense must have been antient, as words were at first but few in number, and such as were for the most part the names of sensible objects : in progress of time, however, words were wanted to express the operations and faculties of the mind, and they therefore expressed these by images taken from external things. No language can, however, be made copious enough to express every thing, and therefore men fought to abridge the labour by appropriating one word to express every similar situation. Thus the preposition in originally denotes the circumstances of place; as, the man was killed in the wood; afterwards it was applied by a fancied connection to things that have no relation to place: for instance, the phrases in health, in diffress, &c.; in like manner, warm with anger. Objects attended with their circumstances afford great scope to figurative language. We view nothing alone, but it comes into our minds with a great many attendant circumstances, as before, behind, above, below, together, &c. Sometimes one word comes to fignify many diffinct things by this imaginary connection: for instance, the word voice originally fignified an articulate found; afterwards being applied to fuch things as were done by means of these founds, it raised an idea, or communicated a fentiment fimilar to them, as, to give one's voice for a cause, to vote for it. In the same manner we fay, the voice of truth, the voice of reason, the voice of conscience, &c. The same words that are used in Hebrew to fignify ment and food, denote also fighting and weather:

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weather; and the same words signify strength and a young lion, it was supposed that men got their food by sighting. Thus the Greek word ALLA, wealth, antiently signified spoil, being derived from haw, or ELAULE, to take away by force. We must, however, take heed that our metaphors are always just; so that we should not say, "We will enter into the bottom of things," though this is once used by Mr. Addison, but "We will go, or penetrate to the bottom."

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Though the barrenness of language may, however, account in some measure for the use of figures, yet there is also another cause to be assigned, i. e. the influence of the imagination. It was obvious that such things as were capable of being expressed in a sensible manner by metaphors, as in the examples above, became more lively and striking when clothed in a metaphorical dress.

It is certain that a great many have used tropes that never knew the name of one of them; like Monsieur Tousdain, in one of Moliere's plays, who had spoken prose forty years without knowing it; and we daily hear people speak in a metephorical style who know not the meaning of the word metaphor.

It will possibly be urged, that there can be no occasion for rules respecting figurative language, since it is a natural effort of the mind; but we may as well agree that there is no use in setting songs to music, because we hear some people sing very agreeably who do not understand one note of the gamut: the absurdity of this appears at first view.

It is true that good sense will direct you in the proper use of figurative and metaphorical style, yet rules may be useful to show you their beauty, and what you should copy, and what you should avoid.

Observe, however, that one stroke of the simple sublime is worth a thousand sigures; yet these, like sine clothes and lace, which set off a gentleman to more advantage, render our composition more agreeable and entertaining. Figures are only the dress, and sentiment the substance. Who, for instance, can read that passage of Virgil, where he describes the Grecian at the point of death, without being affected?

Sternitur infelix alieno vulnere, cœlum

Here the expression is simple and vet sublime. We must not, therefore, imagine either that fublimity confifts entirely in the diction, or that figurative language is without its use and beauty, when properly and judiciously applied.

The following appear to be the principal uses of figures: 1st. They enrich language, which, without them, would be very much confined; by applying one word to feveral things we render our language much more copious, and are able to express the nicest shades and colours of thought.

2dly. They bestow a dignity on discourse. How much more noble is it to fay, "the vault of heaven," instead of the common word, " the fky." So we fay, " the evening of life," for " old age." Thus the expression, " Death spares neither the rich nor the poor," is low, when compared with Horace:

> " Pallida mors equo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas Regumque turres."

"With equal pace impartial fate Knocks at the palace, as the cottage gate."

3dly. By figures two objects are presented at the same time, without any confusion; as in the example already mentioned we can, at the same time, have a clear and dis-

tinct view of the evening and of old age.

4thly. They give us a more clear and firiking view of things; they place them in a picturefue manner before our eyes; so in that example we easily call to mind, that as noon fucceeds to morning, and evening to noon, fo youth is followed by manhood, and that by old age. The dark and filent evening too prefents us with a striking picture of the gradual decline and deprivation of the faculties, both bodily and mental, "When the grashopper shall be a burthen, and desire shall fail," &c.

5thly. By figurative language we enliven a fubject which may be naturally dry or uninteresting. We have an instance of this in Lord Bolingbroke's Differtation on Parties. "There have been ages of gold and filver, of brafs and iron, in this our little world, as well as the great one." Here every thing is beautiful and noble; but if you strip it of its figurative drefs the fentiment will not make the fame

appearance.

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appearance. Beautiful as it is, it is not without a fault, for he blends the christian and pagan theology. And here we must observe, that though Bolingbroke is a good orator, and we must often have recourse to him for examples, yet he ought by no means to be a favourite author, or held up as a model even of style. His works are mostly written as daily papers, amidst the heat of party spirit, and have little esse to recommend them but the style. His political works are much the best, for in his posshumous pieces, in which he attacks religion, his reasoning is loose and his arguments inconclusive; he is a striking instance of a fine genius ill applied, and he is an author who will soon be forgotten, or handed down to posterity only with contempt.

But to return from this digression. After all that has been said on the advantage of figures, we are not to imagine they are absolutely necessary in the sublime; the true sublime often rejects all ornament, as in the instance already cited from Virgil. It is chiefly when the sentiment is neither very low nor very grand that we should employ a figurative style. It would be both tedious and almost impracticable to mention all the divisions and subdivisions of tropes and figures that have been established by rhetoricians. Any that incline to see them treated of at a great length, may consult Mr. Ward's Treatise of Oratory, where he treats of them in very dry way; you may also read Marsh on Tropes, who treats that subject in a much better manner. At present I shall only take notice of a few of the common modes in which figurative language is applied.

The first application of figurative language proceeds from the relation between cause and effect, as in Mr. Addition's Epistle from Italy.

"Blossoms, and fruits, and flowers together rise,"
And the whole year in gay confusion lies."

Sometimes we use the effect as the cause, as grey bairs for old age; shade for the leaves that occasion the shade. One loves his bottle, i.e. be is a drunkard. This figure is called by rhetoricians a metonymy.

2dly. The fign is fometimes put for the thing fignified, as, the gown for the priesthood; the long-robe for professors of the law, judges, barristers, &c.

D 3

3dly. The relation between the antecedent and the confequent, as in the Roman phrase fuit, or vixit, to signify a

man is dead. This trope is called metalepsis.

4thly. The synecdoche is when a part is put for the whole, or the whole for a part; as the point for the sword; the roof for the bouse; a sail, to signify a ship, as "We described a sail," &c.: so we put youth and beauty for young and beautiful.

5thly. The most fertile source of beauty is the relation of similitude, and this trope has been denominated a metaphor. The consideration of this important branch of the rhetorical art would, however, extend this letter to an immense length, and I must therefore reserve it as the subject of my next.

VISITS TO THE BOTANICAL GARDEN.

THIRD DAY.

(Continued from page 404.)

DEFORE we could enter the Menagerie, we called a long time for Cassel, who is the governor. He heard us at length, and came to open the iron gate. Sorrow was marked on his countenance; Gustavus, whom nothing escapes, made me remark it. "I know what distresses him," replied I, " and you shall hear when we come out. Now let us follow him, and listen to what he is going to fay." Gustavus was attentive, and the governor thus began: " This animal, which you fee lying down, and which refembles a large white dog, is the bear of the frozen fea. It is much more favage than the common bear. Its voice is more like the barking of a dog when hoarfe than the howling of a common bear. This is blind, and we do not know how it become fo. That in the next fees clearly, but he is dying; and foon perhaps his lofs will be added to all those that we have already suffered. You see in that cage a most splendid magnificent bird. It is the great red macaw; it is found in all the hot climates of America, in the Antilles, in Mexico, Peru, Guiana, and Brafil; and this species, which is very numerous and widely dispersed over the New World, is no where found on the antient continent

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continent. The macaws inhabit woods in wet lands planted with palm trees. They commonly go in pairs, rarely in flocks. Sometimes, however, they collect together in a morning, and, crying in concert, are heard to a great diffance. They utter the fame cries when any object furbrifes or alarms them. They also scream continually as they fly, and of the parrot tribe they fly the best.

"I need not name to you the animal contained in this cage. You recognize the monkey tribe. This is a Barbary ape or magot. Of all the apes this is the one that best accustoms itself to our climate. Although it is not delicate, it is always sad, and often dirty. It understands me when I speak to it, and obeys the orders that I give it. Come you rogue (to the ape) your hands upon your head. Do you mind me? Your hands upon your head, I tell you. (Here the ape made an ugly grimace, and rearing himself on his two hind legs, he joined his fore-legs over his head.)

"Here is another monkey. Its figure is nearly as ugly as that of its neighbour; it is the mandril. This species of baboon is found on the Gold Coast, and in the other southern provinces of Africa, where the negroes call it boggo. Its muzzle is surrowed on both sides with longitudinal wrinkles, deep and strongly marked, the sace is naked, and of a bluish colour. He is very careffing; as soon as I say, Embrace me, he put his paws through the bars, and embraces me. See! in this den are three little wolves.

"The wolf, both in exterior and interior, so much resembles the dog, that he appears to be modelled after the same form. But their dispositions are so different, that they are not only incompatible, but have a natural antipathy, are enemies by instinct.* A puppy trembles at the first fight of a wolf; he slies even from the smell, to which, though unknown, he seels such an aversion, that he creeps trembling between the legs of his master. None but very strong and vigourous dogs dare to encounter the wolf, and even

^{*} This idea of the antipathy of the dog and wolf is contrary to the opinion of the best modern naturalists. Catesby affirms that the wolves of North America have produced an intermediate race with the dogs brought by Europeans.

these have not often the advantage, particularly when they are not armed by man with an iron collar fluck full of points. The wolf has great strength, especially in the fore part of the neck and the jaw. He carries off a sheep in his mouth, without suffering it to touch the ground, and at the same time runs faster than the shepherd, so that none but dogs can reach him and make him refign his prey. The wolf is very voracious; the scent of carnage attracts him from the distance of more than a league; he prefers live rellow flesh to dead, yet he devours the most putrid garbage; he ine w loves human flesh, and, perhaps, if stronger, would eat no componenter. Wolves have been seen to follow armies, to come and the in numbers to the field of battle, where bodies have been by fha negligently buried, to uncover them, and devour them with happi infatiable avidity; and these same wolves, being accustomed to human sless, have afterwards been known to fall his bil upon men, to attack the shepherd rather than his flock, to by biti cannot devour women and carry away children.

devour women and carry away children.

"This other den is inhabited by animals named ftagwolves. This creature, also called the lynx, has lively, piercing eyes; it lives by hunting, and pursues its prey to the very tops of trees. The wild cats, martins, ermines, and squirrels, cannot escape it; it also catches birds; it lies der's in wait for stags, goats, and hares, darts upon them as they pass, seizes them by the throat, and as soon as the victim is secured, sucks its blood and opens its head to eat the brains; after which it often abandons it to seek another.

"In this cage is a fox. You know that this is an animal famous for its cunning. It partly deserves its reputation; it is an enemy more formidable from its address than from its strength. The fox commonly inhabits the skirts of woods, within reach of villages; it listens to the song of the cock and the cry of the poultry; it smells them from far, and feizing skilfully its time, concealing both its march and its intention, it glides creepingly along, arrives at the spot, and feldom makes an ineffectual attempt. It also lies in ambush for hares, and when it does not leap out just in time able to catch them, it returns to its post and leaps out again, as it was the stage of the stage of the catch them, it returns to its post and leaps out again, as it was the stage of to catch them, it returns to its post and leaps out again, as it was if to discover the cause of the failure. The fox attentively the journatures finares and birdcalls, anticipates the fowler, and for ren

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cceffively carries off the birds which are entangled. It posits them in different places, particularly by road sides, wheel tracks, under moss, or under a juniper-bush, where fometimes leaves them for two or three days, but knows erfectly how to find them in time of need. It discovers ne nests of partridges and quails, catches the mother upon he eggs, and deftroys a confiderable quantity of game.

"I regret that I have nothing more to show you but a ellow crefted cockatoo; the plumage of this parrot is of a ne white, its crest is of a lemon colour; it is, as you see, t no composed of long, fost, loose feathers, which the bird raises nd throws forwards. His manner of testifying his joy is, been by shaking his head up and down quickly several times, with happing his beak a little, and raising his beautiful crest.

He renders cares for cares. He touches your face with fall his bill, and seems to lick you. He often sharpens his beak to by biting and breaking wood. Buffon pretends that he cannot bear to be caged; this, however, supports his capivity very well. This is, at prefent, all that our menagerie contains. We loft, a few days fince, its greatest ornament—the lion. We have been sometime expecting two noble elephants from Holland, who made a part of the Stadthollies der's collection. We should have received them before hey now, but for the difficulty of transporting them. They know not how to make them travel. The numerous cathe nals which it would have been necessary to cross upon planks, prevented their coming on foot from Holland to mal Paris; for elephants are afraid of water and do not like to cross wooden bridges. In consequence, they had prepared caravans on wheels, in order to bring them more convenients, ently; and to accustom them previously to their moving ock habitation, they constantly fed them in the caravans defand tined for their journey. The day for their departure being its arrived, the elephants were made to enter their carriages, and and the cornack, or conductor, thut the door; the male am- instantly struck against it with his head : the door was unime able to refift, it fell, and the elephant walked quietly out: , as it was then necessary to take out the female; the plan of rely the journey was broken, and they are now feeking means and for renewing it." vely (To be continued.)

LIVES OF CELEBRATED CHILDREN.

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RANCES MARIA, of Rochebeaucour, born in A. goumois, in 1752.

Nature, who has granted to man the gifts of genius and deep thinking, ability to invent and force to execute, feet to have compensated his companion by gifts no less valuable gentleness of disposition, patience, felf-command, courage fensibility, prudence, activity, and regularity of conduct This last quality is, above all, a prerogative which cannot be refused to a fex worthy on so many accounts of love and

respect.

With what aptness too is woman endowed from her tender years! Are not young girls daily seen to conduct when house, to watch over the details of house-keeping, to make their little brothers and sifters, to supply, in a word our house the loss of their parents, at an age when great boys are carefe at pable of no service, and only think of amusing themselves title be Frances Maria perfectly confirms these observations. This is refer young woman owed her birth to a tax-gatherer of Roche bands beaucour, in Angoumois. Her father was possessed on a lint fortune, but he was a worthy man, a good husband, and and we good father. Although he had himself received only a very common education, as he did not want good sense, he ad be brought up his child much better than the children of the ays. The inhabitants of great cities are often educated. He had er in remarked that Frances was of a gentle but very decided the temper, repugnant to all remonstrances delivered with sever in management than those of kindness, caresses, and sentiment, and he saw himself no less respected than beloved by her. His wise was far from shewing the sense and tender care hem, of her husband. She affected great love for her daughter, old,

His wife was far from shewing the sense and tender care hem, of her husband. She affected great love for her daughter, old, but this love was unequal and unenlightened. Whimsical, berfel capricious, batty to excess, unreasonable in her demands, been and ready to take offence, the was perpetually chiding Matordinia for mere tritles. On occasions when the ought to have an fireproved her daughter, she manifested a tenderness, of which

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little girl could not divine the reafon; when it would re been right to have encouraged her, the overwhelmed with menaces and harsh treatment, which hurt and diffled the good father, and foured the mind of her child. us thwarted in his dearest affections, but irresolute, and firous of preserving peace in his house, the father conaled within his heart a fecret grief. He fell ill, and died in arms of his afflicted daughter. His wife, though still ung, did not long survive him; and she left behind her a tle boy, of eighteen months old, with Frances, then aged? The father of the young orphan was rich only in virtues;

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left no inheritance to his daughter but fome old furnire, and a little cottage, fituated in the skirts of a wood. rances retired with her little brother to this wild afylum. ten the wretched have, alas! neither relations nor friends! She to wherself absolutely deserted, and was soon reduced to the ma jost dreadful poverty. Some husbandmen in the neigh-word burhood, however, wished for her service in keeping their se ca cese and their sheep; but her tender attachment to her lives tile brother prevented her from accepting the office, and This is resolved to attempt and to suffer every thing rather than both bandon him.

In this urgent necessity Maria fold some linen and effects, and with the money that she gained by this means she ven ought flax and cotton. From the age of seven years she e, he ad been able to make a pair of men's stockings in two f the ays. The habit of employment was of great affiftance to had ler in her poverty; and the fet herfelf to spinning, sewing, cided and knitting alternately. As the was not left active than feve kilful, the thus provided for her subliftence, and preferved ds of er independence.

nent, Activity, industry, and virtue, naturally command the care lien, they offer us their fervices. A girl of twelve years hter old, living alone in a poor cottage, providing entirely for fical, perfelf, and taking care of an infant brother, as if he had ands, been her child, was a fight equally rare and affecting. Ac-1 Ma-cordingly her reputation foon spread abload. Every body have an from the neighbouring diffricts to fee her, and work was hich

eagerly .

eagerly brought to her. The mothers particularly made equally a duty and a pleasure to bring their children thither. "Come," faid they, "come and see a girl of twelve year old who conducts herself like a woman of thirty, and passe her nights in providing food for her little brother."

Plenty, the ordinary fruit of industry and activity, insensibly began to reign in the cottage of Maria; she even found herself enabled to take a good old woman to live with her, who kept house for her, and took care of her brother whilst she went to carry her work to the neighbouring villages. Passing her days in innocence and peace, nothing would have been wanting to the happiness of this virtuous child, had her father still been with her.

Afflicting recollections continually offered themselves to her mind, and spread a gloom over her thoughts. During the hours of the night, and throughout the day, she selt a dreadful void around her. "Dear friend of my childhood," she repeated, "why are you not with your beloved daughter! With what pleasure should I consecrate to you the product of my watchings! O, how it would delight me to return the cares which you lavished on me in my childhood! No, no, never shall I be consoled for so cruel a loss, nothing can make me amends."

Divided between her attention to her little brother, and the tender recollection of her beloved father, the good Frances had already passed three years in her solitude.

Surpassing others no less in the advantages of person than those of mind, she was of a size and strength much above her age, and her beauty was equal to the amiable qualities of her heart. Some of the richest farmers importunately demanded her in marriage, and would have esteemed themselves but too happy to have obtained her without a dowry; but they were very young men, and Maria, with a prudence by no means common, dismissed them, preferring a tradesman of a middle age with a moderate property, because, as she said, he might supply the place of a father to her brother and herself, and assist her in acquiring the experience that she stood in need of.

In was the middle of a long and fevere winter, and the prudent Maria awaited the fine weather of spring, to unite the was

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her lot with that of the happy man for whom the deflined the gift of her heart, and her lovely person. But, alas! the was prevented in her defign by a fatal accident. For five weeks the earth had been covered with frozen fnow. The wolves wandered through the fields in herds; they boldly entered the towns, and even men, when unarmed, became their victims. One morning as Frances was drawing some bread from the oven, a she-wolf, followed by five whelps, burft into the room. Maria instantly seized a knotty stick. and defended herfelf with equal courage and calmness. She would certainly have faved her life had the thought only of herself. Whilst she was dealing rude blows to the favage beaft, she perceived a second enemy advancing towards her brother. Then uttering a cry of terror, she seized the child by the middle, opened a closet, and there placed him under cover from all danger; but whilft the courageous girl fupported herfelf with one hand, and endeavoured with the other to repulse the voracious animals, the furious wolf fprung at her throat, and fuffocated her instantly. The good old woman flying trembling to implore affiftance, was also seized and torn in pieces.

Thus died, in her fifteenth year, this young woman, who so well deserved a better fate. Who can resuse their tears? The true model of filial piety, of courage, and fraternal affection, inspired with virtue, with sentiment, and grace; who better deserved to have lived and become the mother of a family than she, who sulfilled so well the sacred duties of one without the title? Her brother was living in 1796, and from him have been received these in-

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THE LITTLE HERMITAGE.

(Continued from page 267.)

HEY went accordingly into the neighbouring woods to cut down fome poles. Each of the children would carry at least one; and whilst Joseph disposed them in the form of rafters Paul cut the rushes; Honorius collected the brushwood, and Louis cut the turf. In short, they carried Vol. II.

on their work with fo much zeal and ardour, that in less than three days the cabin was completely finished. Then what a pleasure it was to the children to go into this little hut, built by their own hands; to fland, to fit down in it, to observe its interior structure, to see that not a ray of light could pierce through its walls. "O how comfortable we are here!" faid the children one to another. "This is my place." "This is mine: now let it blow, rain, or hail, we have nothing to fear." What a pleasure was it too, at their return to the farm, to announce this great news to their good parents, and to Catharine their little fifter! How proud were they take her the very next morning to this new habitation of their own making, of which they regarded themselves as the sole owners, and to which they attached a greater value than if it had been the most magnificent palace. It was, according to their expression, their country-bouse; and every moment they could dispose of they came to pass at their seat. But it was not enough to be lodged, they foon felt a defire to have a garden round their house; and Joseph, who was become their great friend, took pleasure in affishing them in this new enterprize. They first agreed on the form and dimensions to be given to this garden, and the kind of productions to be cultivated in it; and it was fettled, in the first place, that all vain fymmetry, all frivolous ornaments, should be banished; that only a few borders round the house should be referved for flowers, and that the remainder should be entirely confecrated to what was useful; that nothing should be admitted into it but fruit trees, and vegetables employed in food; "for as to flowers," faid the children, " we shall have enough of them in the meadow; that shall be our parterre."

The plan thus fixed, Joseph began by fastening a little slick to each end of a cord; after which he shewed the children how to make use of it, to trace on the ground the different divisions of their land. After having marked the limit on the side of the meadow by a curved line, drawn from the two extremities of the semi-circle formed by the stream, they made two strait and parallel lines, to mark the principal walk which was to go from the meadow to

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the cabin, feparating the garden into two parts. Joseph then made them distribute the rest of the ground into little compartments of different shapes, to enable them to draw fuccessively circles, ellipses or ovals, quadrangles or squares, parallelograms, lozenges, trapeziums, polygons, triangles with right, acute, and obtuse angles; and he explained to them, at the same time, the properties of these different figures. The various divisions of the garden thus traced out, they began to dig up the parts which were to be fown; and, in proportion as the earth was fufficiently prepared, Joseph shewed them the manner of planting or fowing the different feeds which they brought from the farm. They were particularly defirous of planting a great number of roots good to eat simply roasted in the ashes, as potatoes, &c. "With these," faid they, "we shall be fure of having food here, and we shall need no other cook than ourselves."

As for fruit trees there were already some wild stocks of plums, apples, and quinces, in the hedge bordering the stream on the side of the garden; but the children would have wished for them of all kinds, and planted along the walks. Now, how were they to procure these, having no nursery in the farm, or in the neighbourhood? Joseph went to seek for them in the neighbouring woods, and his three little companions did not fail to follow him.

In the midst of the oaks, beeches, birches, elms, and maples, which furnished these woods, he taught them to diftinguish the wild quinces, whose leaves are of a whitish green, with a fruit refembling the pear, covered with a cottony down; cherry trees, which bear little black cherries: chesnuts and hazelnuts, the fruit of which all the children knew; medlars, connels, whose red fruit is shaped like an olive; and fervice trees, whose little apples, when fermented, afford an agreeable and refreshing liquor. Joseph carefully dug up feveral young plants of these different kinds. He formed feveral little bundles of them tied with a pliant branch. Each of the boys took one up on his shoulder, and gayly carried away these new riches to adorn their little domain. Joseph having first planted before them one of the young trees, they chose to set all the E 2 other

others themselves. The apples they planted in two line along the principal walk across the garden, and the nut they ranged in a circle round the cabin, in order, as they said, to watch them more nearly, and to defend them from the incursions of the robber birds, who came to divide the harvest with them.

But these trees, taken thus from the forest in a state of nature, would only have given fmall, poor, and tafteless fruits, fuch as would be produced by all our orchard trees, had they not been perfected by culture. This Joseph obferved to the children, and he spoke to them of the necessity of grafting those in their garden which were capable of it, Louis, Paul, and Honorius, who had perhaps feen many grafts in their father's garden, but without paying any attention to them, did not understand what Joseph meant by grafts, and he was obliged to enter into some explanations with them. "To graft, or bud," faid he to them, " is to cut off the head or the arms of a tree, to give it a new head or arms, and to force it to produce fruits of a different kind from its own. You fee there among those bushes by the fide of the stream stocks of white and black thorn, and wild pears, apples, and plums. Well, by the operation of grafting, I can cause medlars and plums to grow upon these thorns; on these wild plums, peaches and apricots; on these other stocks, all the best flavoured kinds of pears and apples; on these little black cherry trees, I will rear all the finer forts; from these wild chesnuts I will produce fine large ones of the cultivated kind; and from these hazels fine filberts."

"O, how can that be?" cried the children. "Quick, quick, let us begin." "You must first get me some grafts," resumed Joseph. "Grafts are little branches, or even buds alone, cut from the trees of which you wish to have the fruits, which are afterwards infinuated into other trees, on which you want these fruits to grow. So if you only tell the gardener at the farm to cut you grafts of the different trees that you choose to have, he will know very well what you mean. You may bring them to me here, and I will shew you how the operation of grafting is performed."

A few days afterwards the children did not fail to come

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well provided with different grafts from the best trees in their father's garden, and Joseph shewed them the manner of using them, by making first a cleft graft on a young wild plum. " Now, my little friends," faid he, " on this wild flock I can graft at will a peach, an apricot, or another plum. Say which you like best." "We should like a peach best," replied they. "Well, choose a peach among these grafts that you have brought." "Here is one." "Good. I begin by cutting off the smallest end, fo as to leave it only about three inches long, taking care that it should have, at least, three good eyes or buds. Now I cut it at the largest end in form of a wedge, leaving on each fide a little strip of bark sticking close to the wood, and broader on one fide than on the other; and thus the graft is prepared. Now I apply myself to the slock, which the gardeners in this case call the subject. I clear away neatly all the little branches which spring from the trunk, and I behead the stem, at the height of about five feet, by a fomewhat oblique cut. To the top of the trunk I then apply the blade of my knife, and I make in it, as you fee, a vertical cleft, large enough to contain the end of the graft. With the point of my knife I keep this cleft half open for a moment, and I neatly flip in the foot of the graft, in fuch a manner that the bark of the broadest fide shall come flush with the bark of the subject, and that the two barks shall exactly answer. The graft thus placed, I cover it round with a lump of clay, mixed with dry grafs, that the air may not penetrate the parts newly cut, and the operation is finished. Some time hence the two woods will be fastened together; you will see the little branch engrafted on this wild flock grow and unfold as the flock itself would have done; and instead of having on this tree little, four, black plums, you will have fine red peaches of an excellent: flavour."

Louis, Paul, and Honorius, could scarcely give credit to fuch a prodigy, and asked Joseph a great number of questions about the causes of so assonishing a metamorphosis, which gave him occasion to explain to them the principles of vegetation, the course of the sap in the veins of the plant, and its conversion into wood, leaves and fruits of the same

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species as the tree through the pores of which it is filtered Joseph then grafted by budding a little wild pear, whole weak stem could not have born cleft granting. From among the young shoots that the children had brought to ferve for grafts, he told them to choose one of the bon-chre tien. "Observe well," faid he to them, "what I am go ing to do. I first choose from this young branch the but which appears to me the best formed: here is one. Now must take it off, separating with it nothing but the bark to which it grows. For this purpose I make three cuts in the bark furrounding the bud, in the manner that you shall fee. The first across the branch through to the wood, a little above the bud, that I wish to cut out; the second downwards on one fide of the bud; and the third on the other fide, fo that they shall cross about half an inch below the bud; and the three cuts form together a kind of triangle with the point downwards. Then with the point of my knife I eafily detach the bud which is within this enclosure. Now the bud being loosened, it is to be infinuated into the bark of the wild stock, in such a manner that it shall shoot there as it would have done upon this branch. For this purpose I shall make two incisions in this flock with the point of my knife; the first horizontally, or across the stem; the second vertically, or downwards, so that they shall present the figure of a great T. That being done, I raise the bark on each fide of the vertical incifion; I then infinuate the bud, flipping it downwards, little by little, till the cut at the top of the bud answers exactly to the horizontal incision of the stock, and now nothing is more necessary than to keep it in this situation. See, on the other fide of the fiream there is a little lock of wool flicking on a bush; be so good as to fetch it me: good. I make of it a thread about as thick as a quill, and wind it round the graft in such a manner, that only the eye remains uncovered, as you see. I finish by cutting off the stock four fingers breadth above the graft, so then the sap, no longer finding an iffue, may all fly back towards the graft. After healing the incisions, it will cause the little bud to shoot, as it would have done upon the tree from which it was taken; and and instead of a paltry wilding, you will have an excellent bon chrétien pear tree."

Joseph continued to graft, either by clefts or buds, the other wild trees that grew on the banks of the stream, obferving to engraft the feed bearing trees, fuch as apples and pears, only upon flocks of a fimilar nature; and those producing stone fruits, such as peaches, apricots, and plums, on wild plums or black thorns. On the white thorn, commonly called the hawthorn, he grafted medlars; on the hazels, filberts; he grafted even the dog-rose trees with those of the garden, which would afterwards produce fine double roses of all seasons. At the foot of these grafted trees he planted flips of honey-fuckle and jeffamine; he mixed with them young plants of lilacs, fyrangas, and Spanish broom; fo that the line of bushes which stretched along the banks of the stream, became converted into a rich border of fruit trees and flowering shrubs, which, in course of time, would present a most delightful prospect, and diffuse the richest perfumes.

Joseph caused the children themselves to execute several of these grafts. "Remember well, my little friends," faid he, " how this interesting operation is performed, the mafter-piece of agricultural industry, the triumph of man over nature: for these other trees that we have brought from the forest, and which will languish some time from being transplanted, cannot be grafted till next year, and perhaps I shall not be here to graft them." "Why not?" interrupted the children. "Do you wish to leave us, Joseph? Are you uncomfortable with us?" " Heaven forbid! my good little masters; it is long since I tasted moments so tranquil as those that I have passed during a month with you in this solitude; but no man on earth can answer for the lot deftined him by Providence; and, in the wretched state in which I am, I less than any one, can flatter myself with the hope of an existence long exempt from new misfortunes." "O, good Joseph," replied the children, "you must always stay with us: we will not let you be in want of any thing." And, as the day began to decline, they collected the herd, and left the valley, taking the road towards the farm.

(To be continued.)

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FIRST PRIZE ESSAY.

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On the Subject for No. 7, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

" On the Advantages of Early Rifing."

BY MASTER ROBERT SIMPSON, aged 14:

Of Mr. B. Sowden's Mercantile Academy, Hull.

THEN we consider the shortness of human life, and the numerous avocations in which the bulk of mankind are necesfirily engaged, it will evidently appear to be the greatest wisdom, as well as an indispensible duty, to redeem time with all diligence, and to use every means that may conduce to render it either more confiderable or more

profitable.

When we also reflect on the close and intimate connection which subsists between the two constituent parts of the human frame, the body and the mind; how much the energy and vigour of the one depend upon the health and comfort of the other; and how very difficult, nay, almost impossible, it is to apply with proper diligence to the acquirement of knowledge, and to discharge the necessary duties of life, whilft the body is preffed down by pain and fickness, and in a state of debility; it will cogently appear to be the part of a wife and prudent man to render every means subservient to the preservation of all his faculties, whether of body or mind, in the highest degree of vigour and animation.

Amongst all the means which may be used to attain these valuable ends, perhaps none is more efficacious than the practice of early rifing. Trivial as it may appear to a fuperficial observer, the effects of its falutary influence, on a mature confideration, will fail not to appear highly im-

How advantageous is early rifing, when we confider it as a means of redeeming time: two or three hours faved in a morning from the bed of floth, would add very confiderably to the period of human life. "For my part," fays a celebrated philosopher, " I am for making my life as long as I can, and therefore fleep as little as possible."

The falutiferous effects of early rifing, on the body, are firikingly

ftrikingly obvious, when we, for a moment, contrast the pale countenance of him who is accustomed to the baneful and deleterious practice of turning day into night, with the healthful and ruddy complexion of the peasant who rises with the sun. Indeed, it is an antidote against many disorders of the worst nature incident to the human frame, particularly that dreadful train of nervous diseases, under the pressure of which so many of our fellow creatures have lived a life of continued misery, and which has, ultimately, shortened their days. The practice of early rising is also a means of preserving and prolonging life, insomuch that it would be almost impossible to find a very aged person who has not been an early riser.

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How favourable and delightful is the morning for contemplation on the works of Nature. How glorious and magnificent the whole creation, when the fun, rifing in majestic splendor, tinges the horizon with his crimson die, illuminates the earth with his golden rays, and imparts his prolific influence to the animal and vegetable kingdoms; when the seathered tribe regale the ear with their most melodious notes, hailing the return of welcome day; and when every spire of grass is decked with dewy spangles of inexpressible beauty and endless diversity.

And shall the powers of both body and mind lie dormant at this most pleasing and instructive season? Shall we not rather rise from the "falsely luxurious" bed of sloth, that, by improving these precious hours, we may learn "to see God in all, and all in God.*"

"For is there aught in fleep can charm the wife? To lie in dead oblivion, losing half
The fleeting moments of too short a life.†"

The morning is also peculiarly adapted to study and mental improvement, as at that period the mind is calm and serene, the imagination more lively, the judgment more solid, and the intellectual faculties are more clear.

Deliberation and thought are the characteristics of wifdom, as rathness and inconsiderateness are the marks of

^{*} Dr. Gregory's Economy of Nature,

⁺ Thomson's Scalons.

folly: how much, then, is it likely to conduce to the proper discharge of the duties of life, whether of a temporal or spiritual nature, when, previous to our entering there upon, we set apart a portion of our time for reflection and devotional exercises; and it is well known that, in every engagement, an assiduous application in the morning generally determines the success of our undertakings throughout the day.

Dean Swift has observed, "that he never knew any man come to greatness and eminence who lay long in bed in the morning." Certain it is, that the most eminent characters that ever existed have accustomed themselves to the

practice of early rifing.

Numerous examples might here be cited; in conclusion, let it suffice to give one. It is related of the illustrious Alfred, one of the greatest and wisest monarchs that ever sat on the throne of England, that, by this excellent practice, and by a judicious division of his time, he was enabled not only to apply himself to the affairs of government with an industry almost unparalleled, but also to set apart no less than eight hours every day for reading, writing, and study.

Attellation.

This is to certify, that I believe the above to be the fole compofition of my son, who is of the age of 14 years.

W. SIMPSON.

I certify that I believe this to be the production of Master Robert Simpson, formerly one of my pupils.

B. SNOWDEN.

Mercantile Academy, Hull, Aug. 7, 1800.

SECOND PRIZE ESSAY

On the Subject,

" On the Advantages of Early Rifing."

By Master JOHN CLARKE, aged 14.

Of Mr. Palmer's Academy, Hackney.

TEALTH is univerfally and justly deemed one of the most important blessings of life. It is the source of all other enjoyments, and is so inseparably connected with them, that, in the deprivation of it, they are totally obscured.

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cured. Early rifing has, I believe, always been confidered by those who, from their great knowledge of the human frame, are able to trace the physical effects of certain habits on the constitution, as not only the promoter, but, in a great measure, the preservative of health; and, indeed, we need but turn our eyes to the common scenes of rural life, in order to be convinced of the advantages attending its habitual application.

On a comparative furvey of the peafant and the nobleman, we shall be inclined, I think, to prefer the situation of the former, though poor, to that of the latter, though furrounded by the means of gratifying every defire, and in-

dulging every passion.

The industrious peasant, knowing himself to be dependant alone for his subsistence on the earnings of his labour, rifes every morning at the dawn of light, and purfues with the fun his round of daily duty. We observe him, though aged, blooming with health and happiness, and his limbs strong, active, and vigorous; the pleasant effects of a regular and industrious life. On the other hand, behold the man, who, nurfed in the indulgent lap of floth and luxury, he foon becomes weak and effeminate, his countenance pale, thin, and emaciated, and totally debilitated in mind and body; for, supineness and effeminacy, the natural refult of au indolent life, have ruined more conftitutions than exercise or labour. The more he accustoms himself to fpend his morning in indolence and floth, the more this pernicious habit gains power over him, till at length it will have the complete afcendancy.

Time, the continual advancement of which, all the appearances of nature, the fun, moon, day, and night, the rotation of feafons, and, in short, every object around us conspire to prove, he suffers to roll on, while he is sacrificing health, interest, and happiness, at the shrine of dissipation and felf-indulgence. He thus becomes, like the idle man, a mere blank in the creation; for his delicate and impaired constitution will not suffer him to be active in any employment. Bufiness, has he the courage to attempt it, soon tires him; reading, whether for inftruction or amusement, foon fatigues him; the service of his country or his friend,

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is it requested, interferes too much with the gratification of his senses; and even for his own interest or advancement, any exertion is an absolute constraint upon him. What a despicable and useless being, then, is an indolent person! Can life be a benefit to those who preserve it on such conditions? No; it must, on the contrary, be a curse.

Early rifing is not merely productive of health, but it is also advantageons to those who are fond of cultivating their talents by fludy and contemplation, or whose duty consists in purfuing laborious occupations; and the heat of the prefent feafon, which, when the fun is at its meridian, is almost intolerable, may prove a powerful argument in favour of the present subject, for then the body is overcome with laffitude and fatigue, and, consequently, the mind is incapable of very great exertion. In the morning not only our active, but intellectual powers are, having rested a moderate length of time, fresh and clear, and capable of undergoing another series of labour, whilst too much repose weakens the body and stupisies the faculties of the mind. The noify world is, at this early period, scarce awake; the sons of riot and diffipation have just composed themselves, and the calmness of every thing around invites to study, and animates to labour.

Those who wish to look back hereafter with satisfaction and delight, should learn the value of present moments, and endeavour to let no particle of time, but especially the morning, be passed without acquiring some knowledge for themselves, or imparting some advantage to others.

Should I be permitted to add force to argument, by introducing an example, I should choose that recorded in history of the emperor Julian, who was so thoroughly convinced of the importance of time, and the turpitude of spending too much of it in sleep, that, besides his daily employments, he devoted two-thirds of his night either to public or private advantage, reserving but little time for the necessary rest of the body.

Much more might be faid, but enough, perhaps, has been advanced to prove the advantages resulting from the habitual practice of rising early, both with respect to the health

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health of the body, and the improvement of the mind, and the ill consequences of a neglect of this important duty.

From this fluggishness, so general but so mischievous, it should be the particular care of the young to exempt themfelves. They should avoid spending the morning of their life, as the fluggard does the morning of each day, in indolence and floth, confidering that much is given to us by our Creator to perform, and that while we are indulging ourfelves in thoughtleffness and floth, time loiters not, but rolls rapidly on, and "the night cometh when no man can work."

Attestation.

I certify the above effay to be the fole and unaided production of John Clarke, aged 14 years.

SAMUEL PALMER, Jun.

Hackney, Angust 8, 1800.

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PRIZE TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

By Miss C. FLINT, aged 11:

Of Mrs. and Miss Smallwood's Academy, Croom's-hill, Greenwich.

WALKING IN THE STREET.

TAVE you never paffed the crowd which circulates in the principal ftreets of a great city? A multitude of beings inceffantly pour forth from the most opposite quarters, like divers torrents meeting in a confined vale. At the first fight you would think it impossible that so many individuals could open for themselves a passage, nevertheless all fucceed in making their way without let or hindrance. It is worth observation to see how that is effected. If every man followed obstinately and invariably one straight line. he would not go far before he would meet another. Like two heavy fubstances striking against each other, both would receive a shock which would push them backwards: they would oppose each other, they would be an impediment to those who were behind, and, in a little while, the whole street would be in confusion. But all this is avoided, because every man gives way a little. He who knows how VOL. II.

to walk in the streets does not advance with his arm fquared, but glides along, keeping them close to his fide and prefenting his flexile body in an oblique direction foftly winds his walk, turning afide with art and dexterity, fometimes to the right; fometimes the left, he pushes me one into the kennel, neither does he fall into it himself; he goes neither much faster nor slower than those who take the fame direction. In the first case he might elbow others, in the fecond he might be elbowed himself. In short, if any accident happen, if a coach cross the street, if a cask be rolled along, if a pickpocket be flopped, he does not increase the noise and tumult by running through the crowd, but flackens his pace, and waits patiently till he can pursue his way. Such is the path of life: as we advance in the world a thousand obstacles obstruct our way. Sometimes people fupport in our presence opinions absolutely contrary to ours, others outstrip us in the pursuits of pleasure or fortune, others, in short, oppress and tread upon our heels. We ought first to consider that the road is free for all, and that we have no right to expect that any one should go out of the way to let us pass, if we do not do the same for him. In short, if this mutual agreement do not take place, it is plain that we shall all remain in the same place, or that by pushing against each other, we shall fall into perpetual confusion. If we all rush forward with equal vivacity upon any object, whether of interest or pleasure; and if we never, upon any occasion, take one step backwards, the crowd increases, rivalry and strife ensue, and, instead of gaining ground, we only add to the tumult. The wife man walks forward with firmness and tranquillity; he perplexes and confounds others as little as possible. He makes some allowance for the prejudices and defires of men, and does all in his power to render the journey of life as eafy to his fel-· low-travellers as to himfelf.

Attestation.

The above is the unaided translation of my pupil, Miss C. Flint, aughter of Mr. Flint, Snow-hill, Eirmingham, of the age specified.

JANE S. SMALLWOOD.

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GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES

GIVEN WITH THE SEVENTH NUMBER.

CLASS I.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

THEME-" On the Advantages of Early Rifing."

The first prize has been awarded to Master W. SIMPSON, of Hull, aged 14. Attested by Mr. B. SNOWDEN, matter of the academy there, and by his father.

To receive a Cabinet Library, value Two Guineas.

The fecond to Master J. CLARKE, of Messrs. Palmers' school, Hackney, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Palmer.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Master MAJOR AINGER, of Whittlesea, aged 14. Attested by the Rev. G. Burges.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a guinea.

The fourth to Miss ANNE TOMLINSON, of Mrs. Else's boarding-school, Newark, aged 13. Attested by Mrs. Eise.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The fifth to Master WILLIAM HAMBLY, of Tremough school, near Penryn, Cornwall, aged 13. Attested by Mr. Barvis, master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The fixth to Miss MARY ANNE ORMSTON, of Newcastle, aged 14. Attested by her fifter.

To receive Sturm's Reflections abridged.

The seventh to Master JOHN CROSS, of Thorp Arch Seminary, aged 13. Attested by Mr. J. Peers, rector.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The eighth to Miss MARTHA ATTERSOLL, of Crab Tree, near Fulham, aged 12 years. Attested by her mother, and Elizabeth Wells, governess.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The ninth to Miss E. R. DENT, of Mrs. Dent's school, Northampton, aged 11. Attested by Mrs. Dent.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The tenth to Miss E. A. HADEN, of Mrs. Pope's private school, Birmingham, aged 10. Attested by Mrs. Pope.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

As

As the subject did not admit much variety of argument, we have only printed on this occasion two prize estays. A very respectable estay was received from Miss Field, who had the first prize in our fith number, and who is consequently excluded from receiving one at present. Vide page 205, of vol. I.

The following are deserving of much COMMENDATION, and some of them have peculiar merit, if the early age of the writers

be taken into confideration.

Miss Emma Mary Bedford, aged 12 years and eight months, daughter of W. B. Esq. of Birmingham, and of Mrs. Eves, Crescent School.

Master Boddy, aged 13 years, of Mr. Comfield's academy, North-

Miss Selina Bourne, aged 13 years and seven months, pupil at Mrs. Pope's private school, Crescent, near Birmingham.

Master G. Clarke, aged 12 years, of Mr. Comfield's academy,

Northampton.
Miss Martha Trinder Dent, aged nine years and fix months, of Mrs.
Dent's boarding-school, Northampton.

Master Henry Ewbank, aged 13, of Gainsbro' Grammar School. Master J. Edmonds, aged 13, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Master Fisher, aged 14, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton. Miss Mary Fuller, aged 14 years and fix months, of Mrs. Dent's

boarding fchool, Northampton.

Master H. Green, aged 13, of Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp Arch. Miss Ann Goode, aged 12 years and six months, of Mrs. Dent's boarding school, Northampton.

Master Merridew, aged 10 years, of Mr. Comfield's academy,

Northampton.

Master Peter John Martin, aged 15, privately educated by his father, Mr. Peter Martin, surgeon of Pulboro', Sussex.

Master Richard Nanton, aged 14, of Messes. Palmer's academy,

Hackney.

Miss P. Parsons, aged 14, daughter of W. Parsons, Esq. of Bewdley, and pupil of Mrs. Pope, Birmingham.

Miss Maria Smith, aged 14, daughter of Mrs. E. Smith, of Vaux-

hall Place, near London.

Master Samuel Summers, aged 10 years, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Master W. Thorpe, pupil of the Rev. G. Burges, of Whittlesea. Miss Eliza Sutton Tuman, pupil of the Rev. R. Wright, Brampton, near Chestersield.

Master C. W. Thompson, aged 12 years and three months, of the Rev. J. Peer's seminary, Thorp Arch, Yorkshire.

Miss Maria Tongue, aged 14, daughter of Mr. W. Tongue, of Bingham, and pupil of Mr. Clarke, of that place.

Master George Turner, aged 14, late pupil of Mr. Robinson, of Arundel-street, London.

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-con salvellation A ... CLASS II. GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECOND SUBJECT.

FRENCH TRANSLATION.

" Promenade dans les Rues."

The first prize has been adjudged to Miss M. C. FLINT, of Mrs. and Miss Smallwood's academy, Croom's-hill, aged 11. Attested by Mrs. Smallwood.

To receive a Cabinet Library, value One Guinea and a Half.

The second to Miss JULIA HART, of Vauxhall, private pupil to Dr. Montucci, aged 11. Attested by her father, and M. Huet, French mafter.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Miss WILLIAMSON, of Miss Ramsden's and Waftnaby's school, Hinkly, aged 11. Attesfed by Miss Waftnaby. To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The fourth to Master V. A. RAYMOND, of Mr. Raymond's. French academy, Lewes, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Raymond.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Abridgment of Plutarch's Lives.

The fifth to Miss EMMA MILBOURNE, of Alsop's-buildings, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Josse, French master.

To receive Sturm's Reflections abridged.

The fixth to Mafter J. CONDER, of Messis. Palmer's school. Hackney, aged 10 years and 10 months. Atteffed by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The seventh to Miss S. C. GORE, of Bath, aged 10: Attested by her father.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The eighth to Master S. G. RUGGLES, of Spain's-hall, Fenchingfield, Esfex, aged II. Attested by his father, and Mr. Vincent, French master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The ninth to Miss M. PATTISON, of Stonehouse, near Plymouth, aged 11. Attefted by her mother, and M. Dufrefne, French master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

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The tenth to Miss H. C. SHEPHARD, of Enbome, near Newbery, Berks, aged 10 years and 11 months. Attested by her mother.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The eleventh to Miss BELLA BARROW, of Devonshire-fquare, aged 11. Attested by Mr. D'Espreville, French master.

To receive Sturm's Reflections abridged.

The twelfth to Master J. SURGEY, of Messrs. Palmer's school, Hackney, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Plutarch.

An EXTRA PRIZE has been awarded to Master WILLIAM HUGHES, of Old Chapel-row, Kentish Town, a private pupil of Dr. Montucci, on account of his early youth, being only seven-years and eight months old.

The attempts of the undermentioned are deserving of very respectable mention, viz.

Miss Charlotte Atterfoll, aged 11 years and four months, daughter of Mrs. Atterfoll, of Crabtree.

Miss Anna Coxe, aged nine years and eight months, daughter of Mrs. Coxe, of Hampstead Heath, and pupil of Dr. Montucci. Master F. Coben, son of Mr. Cohen, of Kentish Town, and pupil

of Dr. Montucci.
Miss Cumming, aged 12, pupil of Mrs. Kitching, of Stockton.
Miss Susanna Cuming, not nine years of age, pupil of Mrs. Kitching, of Stockton.

Master M. A. Goldsmid, under 12 years of age, son of Asher Goldsmid, Esq. Leman-street, and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Master T. B. Haywood, aged 10 years and nine months, of Messis.

Heywood and Bolton's academy, Atterclisse, near Shessield.

Miss Eliza A. Kittoe, aged 11, of Mrs. Slick's school, Falmouth.

Miss Alicia C. Mant, not 12, pupil of Mr. Bamouin, of Southampton

Master Merridew, aged 10, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Mils Frances Patrick, aged nine years and four months, daughter of F. C. Patrick, Esq. of Bath.

Miss Mary Jane Peyton, aged 11 years and fix months, daughter of Mrs. Phillis Peyton, of Kentish Town.

Mils Margaretta Taylor, aged nine years, niece to Mrs. Hurry, of Homerton.

Master W. Tucker, aged nine years and one month, son of Mr. T. of the academy, Tilshead, Wiltshire.

Miss Margaret Webster, aged nine years, daughter of Rowland W. Esq. of Stockton, and pupil of Mrs. Kitching.

N.B. Master James Adams, of Stonehouse, near Plymouth, would have been entitled to a prize, but he is above the specified age.

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CLASS III.

ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES IN THE GEOGRAPHICAL CLASS.

Subject .- " To draw a Map of the East Indies."

The first prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN KITSON, of the academy at Norwich, aged 11 years and a half. Attested by the master, Mr. Kitson, in the strongest manner; and the execution of this map, considering the years of his pupil, has very extraordinary merit.

To receive a pair of Adams's twelve inch Globes,

value Three Guineas and a Half.

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The second prize has been adjudged to Master JOSEPH BEN-NETT, of Nottingham Academy, aged 14 years. Attested by his father, at whose house the two maps sent to us were drawn.

To receive a Case of Mathematical Drawing Instruments, value Fifteen Shillings.

The third prize has been adjudged to Master HENRY SMITH, of Gaintborough School, aged 14.

To receive a Silver Medal.

The fourth prize has been adjudged to Master SAMUEL NEWBOULD, aged 14, of the seminary at Thorp Arch. Attested by the rector, the Rev. J. Peers.

To receive a Silver Medal.

The fifth prize has been adjudged to Master CHAMBERS HALL, aged 14, of Englesield-house. Attested by the master, Mr. J. H. Wicks.

To receive a Silver Medal.

The fixth prize has been adjudged to Master W. J. ROBERTS, aged 14, of the academy, James's Place, Bristol. Attested by the master, Mr. Hill.

To receive a Silver Medal.

It is with pleasure we announce that the competitors for these prizes were numerous, and that their exertions do credit to themselves and their teachers.

Among those deserving of great praise, we have selected the names of Miss C. S. Peyton, attested by Mr. Wills, of Kentish Town; of Maker George Eostlake; of Miss Ann Elizabeth Button, of Birmingham; of Miss E. M. Forbes, of Northampton; of Maker Isaac Taylor, of Angel-lane Academy, Colchester; of Miss Lewis, of North Baddelley, Hampshire; of Miss Hawkins, of Norwich; of Miss Elizabeth Parker; of Miss Martha Atterfoll; of Master John Fisher; of Master Samuel Page; and of Master Samuel Wright, of Mr. Wick's academy, Englesield-green.

The maps fent by the young ladies and gentlemen above mentioned, will be placed in a port folio, and kept for three months, at Mr. Hurst's, Paternoster-row, for the inspection of young persons, as well as of their teachers and of the public at large 1 and from these specimens the advantage of such an exercise will be evident.

NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. IX.

Answers to be received, post paid, and fully authenticated, on or before the Fifth of October.

CLASS I.

EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR.

To shew by argument and example the absolute necessity of the strictest adherence to Truth on every occasion; and the wickedness and meanness of every evasion, equivocation, or mental reservation intended to deceive.

The best essay to be entitled to a pair of twelve inch globes, or to books, value three guineas; the second best to a silver medals, value half a guinea; and the eight next best to books, value sive shillings each.

CLASS II.

TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COM-PLETED THEIR THIRTEENTH YEAR.

Voilà les raisons insurmontables que l'impie oppose à la foi de tout l'univers; voilà cette évidence qui l'emporte dans son esprit, sur tout ce qu'il y a de plus évident et de mieux établi sur la terre. On ne sait ce qui se passe dans cet autre monde dont on nous parle! O homme! ouvrez ici les yeux. Un doute seul sussit pour vous rendre impie, et toutes les preuves de la religion ne peuvent sussit pour vous rendre sidèle! Vous doutez s'il y a un avenir, et vous vivez par avance comme s'il n'y en avoit point! vous h'avez pour sondement de votre opinion, que votre incertitude, et vous nous reprochez la soi comme une crédulité populaire!

Mais je vous prie, de quel côté est ici la crédulité? est-elle du côte de l'impie ou du côté du sidèle? Le sidèle croit un avenir sur l'autoriré des divines écritures, c'est-à-dire, le seul livre sur la terre qui mérite quelque créance; sur la déposition des hommes apostoliques, c'est-à-dire, des hommes justes, sumples, miraculeux, qui ont répandu le ur sang pour rendre gloire à la vérité, et à la doct ine desquels la conversion de l'univers a rendu un témoignage qui s'élèvera jusqu'à la fin des siècles contre l'impie; sur l'accomplissement des prophéties, c'est à-

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en dit du dire, le seul caractère de vérité que l'imposture ne petit imiter; sur la tradition de tous les siècles, c'est-à-dire, sur des saits qui depuis la naissance du monde, ont paru certains à tout ce que l'univers a eu de plus grands hommes, de justes plus reconnus, de peuples plus sages et plus polis; en un mot, sur des preuves du moins vraisemblables. L'impie ne croit point d'avenir sur un simple doute, sur un pur soupcon. Qui le sait, nous dit-il; qui en est revenu? Il n'a aucune raison solide, décisive, pour combattre la vérité d'un avenir. Car qu'il l'a publie, et nous nous y rendrons. Il se désie sculement qu'il n'y a rien après cette vie, et là-dessus il le croit.

Or, je vous demande, qui est ici le crédule? est-ce celui qui a, pour sondement de sa croyance, ce qu'il y a du moins de plus vraisemblable parmi les hommes, et de plus propre à faire impression sur
la raison; ou celui qui s'est déterminé à croire qu'il n'y a rien, sur
la soiblesse d'un simple doute? Cependant l'impie croit faire plus
d'usage de sa raison que le sidèle: il nous regarde comme des hommes soibles et crédules; et il se considère lui-même comme un esprit
supérieur, élevé au-dessus des préjugès vulgaires, et que la raison
seule, et non l'opinion publique, détermine. O Dieu! que vous êtes
térrible, lorsque vous livrez le pêcheur à son aveuglement! et que
vous savez bien tirer votre gloire des efforts mêmes que vos ennemis

font pour la combattre!

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Mais je vais encore plus loin. Quand même, dans le doute que se forme l'impie fur l'avenir, les choses teroient égales, et que les vaines incertitudes qui le rendent incrédule, balanceroient les vérités solides et évidentes qui nous promettent l'immortalité; je dis que, dans une égalité même de raisons, il devroit du moins défirer que le sentiment de la foi, fur la nature de nos âmes, fut véritable; un lentiment qui fait tant d'honneur à l'homme, qui lui apprend que son origine est céleste, et ses espérances éternelles: il devroit sonhaiter que la doctrine de l'impiété fût fausse; une doctrine si triste, si humiliante pour l'homme; qui le confond avec la bête; qui ne le fait vivre que pour le corps; qui ne lui donne ni fin, ni destination, ni espérance; qui borne sa destinée à un petit nombre de jours rapides, inquiets, douloureux, qu'il passe sur la terre : toutes choses égales, une raison née avec quelque élévation aimeroit encore mieux se tromper en se faisant honneur, qu'en se déclarant pour un parti si ignominieux à son être. Quelle âme a donc reçu l'impie des mains d'une nature peu favorable, pour aimer mieux croire dans une fi grande inégalité de raisons, qu'il n'est fait que pour la terre, et se regarder avec complaisance, comme un vil assemblage de boue, et le compagnon du bœuf et du taureau? Que dis-je? quel monstre dans l'univers doit être l'impie, de ne se défier même du sentiment commun, que parce qu'il est trop glorieux à sa nature; et de croire que la vanité toute seule des hommes l'a introduit sur la terre, et leur a persuadé qu'ils étoient immortels?

D'ailleurs, non-seulement l'impie est insensé, parce que, dans une égalité même de raisons, son cœur et sa gloire devroient le décider en faveur de la foi, mais encore son propre intérêt. Car, on l'a déjà dit, que risque l'impie en croyant? quelle suite fâcheuse aura sa crédulité, s'il se trompe? Il vivra avec honneur, avec probité, avec

innocence a

innocence: il sera doux, affable, juste, sincère, religieux, ami géné. reux, époux sidèle, maître équitable: il modérera des passions qui auroient sait tous les malheurs de sa vie: il s'abstiendra des plaisurs et des excès qui lui eussent préparé une vieillesse douloureuse, ou une fortune dérangée: il jouira de la réputation de la vertu, et de l'estime des peuples; voilà ce qu'il risque. Quand tout siniroit avec cette vie, ce seroit là le seul secret de la passer heureuse et tranquille; voilà le seul inconvénient que j'y trouve. S'il n'y a point de récompense éternelle, qu'aura-t-il perdu en l'attendant? Il a perdu quelques plaisurs sensuels et rapides, qui l'auroient bientôt, ou lassé par le dégoût qui les suit, ou tyrannisé par les nouveaux désirs qu'ils allument: il a perdu l'affreuse satisfaction d'être, pour l'instant qu'il a paru sur la terre, cruel, dénaturé, voluptueux, sans soi, sans mœurs, sans conscience, méprisé peut-être, et déshon ré au milieu de son peuple. Je n'y vois pas de plus grand malheur; il retombe

dans le néant, et son erreur n'a point d'autre suite.

Mais s'il y a un avenir; mais s'il se trompe en refusant de croire, que ne risque-t-il pas? La perte des biens éternels; la possession de votre gloire, ô mon Dieu ! qui devoitle rendre à jamais heureux. Mais ce n'est là même que le commencement de ses malheurs : il va trouver des ardeurs dévorantes, un supplice sans fin et sans mesure, une éternité d'horreur et de rage. Or, comparez ces deux destinées : quel parti prendra ici l'impie? Risquera-t-il la courte durée de quelques jours ? risquera-t-il une éternité toute entière ? S'en tiendra-t-il au présent qui doit finir demain, et où il ne sauroit même être heureux? craindra-t-il un avenir qui n'a plus d'autres bornes que l'éternité, et qui ne doit finir qu'avec Dieu même? Quel est l'homme sage, qui, dans une incertitude même égale, osat ici balancer? et quel nom donnerons nous à l'impie, qui n'ayant pour lui que des doutes frivoles, et voyant du côté de la foi, l'autorité, les exemples, la prescription, la raison, la voix de tous les siècles, le monde entier, prend seul le parti affreux de ne point croire, meurt tranquille, comme s'il ne devoit plus vivre; laisse sa destinée éternelle entre les mains du hasard, et va tenter mollement un si grand évenement? O Dieu! est-ce donc là un homme conduit par une raison tranquille, ou un furieux qui n'attend plus de ressource que de son déseipoir? L'incertitude de l'impie est donc insensée dans les railons fur lesquelles elle s'appuie. - Massillon Ser. pour le 1er. L. Car.

The best translation to be entitled to books, value one guinea and a half; the second and third best to a silver medal, value half-aguinea; and the six next best to books, value sive shillings each.

CLASS III.

MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

FOR YOUNG PERSONS UNDER SIXTEEN YEARS OF AGE:

In the equation $3b^2x^2 - 2ax^3 = b^4$ the ratio of b to a is that of ten to eight, and any number being taken for a or b, it is required to find the roots of this equation; but the best prize will be given to the person who makes the number a or b such that the solution

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of the equation is the easiest, and, at the same time, finds the roots in the easiest manner. Five figures also of each root must be accurately found.

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The author of the best solution to be entitled to a pair of Adams's nine-inch Globes; the second best to a copy of Mr. Frend's Algeba; and the sonr next to a five shilling book.

CLASS IV. PENMANSHIP.

TO BOYS NOT EXCEEDING THIRTEEN.

It is required to fend in specimens of Penmanship in three hands, upon paper not exceeding seven inches and a half by six inches.

The best specimen to be engraven for insertion in the Preceptor, and the writer to be entitled to a book of Penmanship, value one guinea, and to a silver medal value half-a guinea; the second best to a silver medal value half-a-guinea; and the six next to a silver pen each.

EXTRAORDINARY CLASS.

ANNUAL PRIZE SUBJECT, ADDRESSED EXCLU-SIVELY TO THE PUBLIC CHARITY SCHOOLS IN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

THE CANDIDATES NOT TO HAVE COMPLETED THEIR FOURTEENTH YEAR.

To produce, as a specimen of skill in Penmanship, Practical Arithmetic, and Book-keeping, a complete set of Merchant's Account Books, Day Book, Journal, and Ledger, in the manner of single and double entry, copied from the system in Dr. Hutton's Arithmetic.

The manuscript books to be sent, carriage paid, and fully attested, to the Publisher, on or before the Tenth of December next.

The cleanest, neatest, and most correct set of bool s, to entitle the young writer to a premium of TEN POUNDS, to be paid to the Treaturer of the School, for the purpose of putting him out apprentice, or otherwise providing for him. The next best to entitle the writer to books value one guinea; and the ten next to books, value sive shillings each.

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TO CORRESPONDENTS.

WE cannot close this Number without returning our fincere thanks to Mr. Cox, head mafter of Guinfbro' Grammar-school, for his very judicious letter. He will perceive that we have paid bim the most substantial compliment, by adopting several of his bints. As our great object, indeed, is the folid improvement of the rifing generation, we cannot but think ourselves not only entitled to the patronage, but to the active co-operation of every person who is cordially engaged in the most important of buman avocations, the education of youth: that on which the virtue, the spirit, and, consequently, the prosperity of every people depends. Every suggestion, therefore, which comes from a respectable quarter will be assiduously attended to, and if, on mature consideration, found practicable, shall be adopted. In answer to one of this Gentleman's queries, we beg leave to observe, that the prizes are adjudged entirely according to the merit of the performance, without any regard to the youth of the cand date. In particular cases we have frequently awarded an extra prize as an encouragement to youth, but it would be unfair, if not unjust, to adopt it as a general principle.

FORM OF THE ATTESTATIONS.

The following is recommended as the form of an attestation for the future numbers:

"I declare, that the above is my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not more than —— years of age."

A. B.

"I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowled ge, that A. B. aged —, has not received any assistance in the above ********** either by explanation, suggestion, correction, or in any way, directly or indirectly." C. D.

Prize Books belonging to Meffrs. HANBURY, TREVOR, and ORPEN, and to Miss Johnson, together with a Silver Medal for Master Eyre, will be delivered to order.

The Cabinet Libraries are now ready.

A filver pen has been fent, through the parcel of fome bookseller, addressed to Master Cursham, of Sutton, near Nottingham, and has unfortunately been mislaid. This is the only instance in which our prizes have not been regularly received, but our improved arrangements will probly occasion it to be the last.

The first volume of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR may be had complete, in boards, of all the booksellers, price six shillings and six pence.

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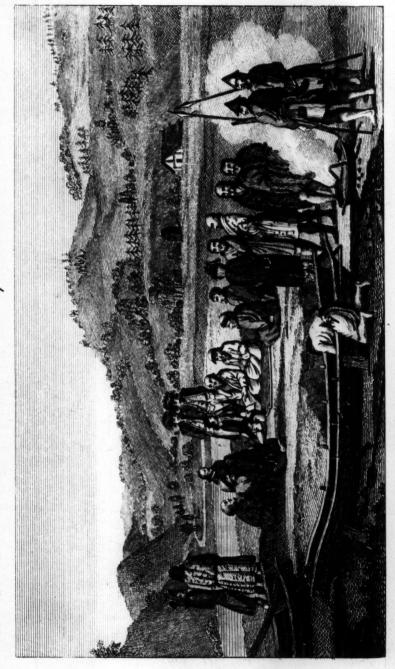
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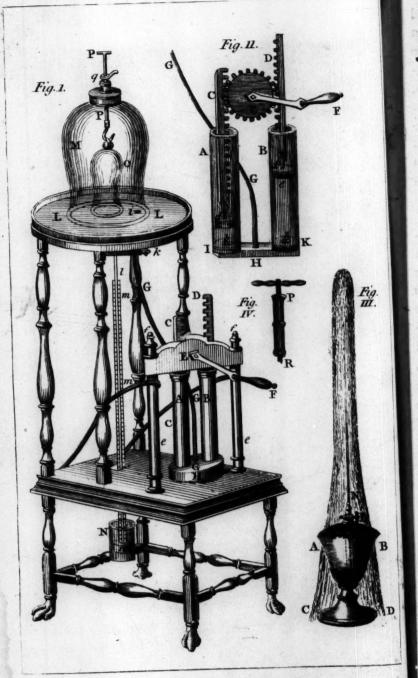
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LECTURES,

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF

YOUNG PERSONS,

ON

Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE VIII.

OF PNEUMATICS.

THE air we breathe is an heterogeneous mixture, that is, a matter composed of different substances, and not of particles of perfectly the fame nature. This is one of the secrets which the wonderful discoveries of modern chemistry have revealed to us. I have already explained to you that the matter of fire is the basis of all fluidity,* and therefore air may be confidered as confifting of very minute particles, which fwim, or are suspended in a mass of that very fubtile and active fluid. The properties of the fire are not, however, perceptible in this mixture; for on account of the attraction which subsists between those particles of which air is composed, and those of elementary fire, the latter is rendered latent, as Dr. Black expresses it, or, in other words, inactive. The matter of atmospheric air is therefore composed of fire as its basis, and some other matters. Or the other matters may be confidered as diffolved and floating in the mass of fire, like falt or gum, or any other substance in water. These matters are found by experiment to be as follows. In one hundred parts of atmospheric or common air there are

VOL. II.

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^{*} Let the young student read over carefully the lecture on fire and its properties.

contained about feventy-two parts of azote, which, you will recollect, is the basis of the nitrous acid or aquasortis, and about twenty-seven of oxygen, with one part of charcoal in the state of fixable air. These, as I before observed, are mixed together, and suspended in the general mass of elementary fire, which keeps them in the sluid state. It is, however, of the general properties of air which I am now to treat, or rather of its mechanical and not its chemical properties; but thus far seemed necessary to remark, to prevent your falling into the vulgar error, of supposing air to be an homogeneous substance, and not a mixed matter, and to refresh your memories with respect to matters formerly explained.

In a former lecture fluids were divided into the incompressible and the elastic kinds. That branch of science which is called hydrostatics treats of all the known qualities of the former, and that of pneumatics embraces all which respects the general properties of the elastic fluids. The elastic fluids are again divided into two classes, those which are condenfible, fuch as vapour, which is eafily condenfible by cold; and the permanently elastic sluids, of which there are many, fuch as oxygen air or gas (the word gas being an old German term fignifying spirit*), azotic gas or phlogisticated air, as it was first called, carbonic acid gas or fixable air, hydrogen gas or inflammable air (that which is used to inflate balloons), nitrous gas, hepatic gas, &c. But of their general or mechanical properties the common air will ferve to give you a perfect idea, and of that it is that I shall treat in the course of this lecture.

The properties of air of which the science of pneumatics particularly treats, are its weight, pressure, and elasticity or

fpring.

That air, like all other bodies, is possessed of weight or gravity many obvious facts will serve to convince us, and, in truth, it may be reduced to the simplest of all experiments, for air may be actually weighed. If, for instance, a bottle which holds a wine quart is emptied of its air, either by the action of the air-pump, or by filling it with quicksilver, and emptying the quicksilver out, taking care that, in corking it,

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no air is suffered to enter, it will be found to be sixteen grains lighter than it was before it was emptied of its air. A quart of air, therefore, weighs just sixteen grains; a quart of water weighs fourteen thousand six hundred and twenty-one,* which, divided by sixteen, gives a result in round numbers of nine hundred and sourteen; so that water is nine hundred and sourteen times heavier than air.

This, however, is only to be understood of air near the furface of the earth; for, in fact, as air is a body possessed of gravity, that which is rearest the earth sustains a greater preffure, and is confequently more denfe or compact; and it is rarer or more thin and light in the higher regions of the atmosphere, being less pressed with the weight of air which is above. The atmosphere, I observed in my last lecture, is that mass of air which surrounds the globe, and which is generally computed to be about forty-five miles in height. If altitudes in the air are taken in arithmetical proportion, the rarity of the air will be in geometrical proportion; and therefore if we supposed that the atmosphere extended to the height of five hundred miles, then one cubic inch, fuch as the air we breathe, would be fo much rarefied at that height, that it would fill a hollow sphere equal in dimensions to the orbit of Saturn.

We need not, however, have recourse to calculations to prove a fact so generally understood. All persons who have visited the tops of high mountains know by experience that the air is thinner at those heights than below. As they ascend their breathing becomes quicker, the atmosphere is clearer, neither clouds nor vapours can rise to such heights; and it is common in these situations to see the lightning below pass from one cloud to another, while all above is clear and serene. Ulloa, who went to take the measure of a degree upon the earth's surface, informs us, that while he stood on the top of one of the Andes in Peru, the clouds, which were gathered below the mountain's brow, seemed like a tempestuous ocean, all dashing and soaming, with lightnings breaking through the waves, and sometimes two or three sums were resected from its bosom. "In the mean time he

^{*} A quart of water is generally calculated at two pounds, but it is in fact fomething less.

enjoyed a cloudless sky, and lest the war of the elements to the unphilosophical mortals on the plain below him."

The reason of all this must be evident to you. The clouds are vapour, that is, water rarefied by heat; vapour is lighter than air near the surface of the earth, but in the higher regions the air is thinner and lighter than these vapours, and consequently they can only ascend to a limited height. What Ulloa observed on the Andes, has been consirmed by the adventurers in balloons, and particularly by Mr. Baldwin, who ascended from Chester in the year 1785. The earth was entirely hid from his view by the immense mass of vapours; he compares them to a sea of cotton, tusting here and there by the action of the air, and soon after the whole became an extended stoor of white cloud.

To prove the weight and pressure of the atmosphere I shall mention an eafy experiment, which the young student may make himself, without any philosophical apparatus. Fill a common faucer nearly full with water, and then take a teacup, and burn in it a piece of paper; then, while the paper is yet burning, turn down the cup, paper and all into the faucer, and you will foon fee that the pressure of the air upon the water contained in the faucer will force it up into the cup. To understand the nature of this experiment it is necessary to turn your recollection to what has been stated in former lec-In that upon fire, I shewed you that fire was a real fubstance; when, therefore, the paper is burned in the teacup, the air is driven out by another fluid (viz. fire) taking its place. Fire, however, penetrates all substances; and therefore when the flame is extinguished, it is diffipated through the pores of the cup, leaving almost a perfect vacuum in the cup, to fill which the water is pressed up as before described. It would rife, if there was no impediment, to the height of thirty-two feet, because, as I explained in my last lecture, a column of the atmosphere is exactly equal in weight to a column of water of that height.

The weight of the air, or rather of the atmosphere, is, however, exactly determined by the following experiment.

Take a glass tube about three feet long, and open at one end; fill it with quicksilver, and putting your singer upon the open end, turn that end downward, and immerse it into

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a small vessel of quicksilver, without letting in any air: thentake away your singer, and the quicksilver will remain sufpended in the tube twenty-nine inches and a half above its
furface in the vessel; sometimes more, and at other times
less, as the weight of the air is varied by winds and other
causes. That the quicksilver is kept up in the tube by the
pressure of the atmosphere upon that in the bason, is evident;
for, if the bason and tube are put under a glass, and the air is
then taken out of the glass, all the quicksilver in the tube will
fall down into the bason; and if the air is let in again, the
quicksilver will rise to the same height as before. Therefore
the air's pressure on the surface of the earth, is equal to the
weight of twenty-nine inches and a half depth of quicksilver
all over the earth's surface, at a mean rate.

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A fquare column of quickfilver, twenty-nine inches and a half high, and one inch thick, weighs just fifteen pounds, which is equal to the pressure of air upon every square inch of the earth's surface; and one hundred and forty four times as much, or two thousand one hundred and fixty pounds upon every square foot; because a square foot contains one hundred and forty-four square inches. At this rate a middle-fized man, whose surface may be about sourteen square feet, sustains a pressure of thirty thousand two hundred and forty pounds, when the air is of a mean gravity; a pressure which would be insupportable, and even fatal to us, were it not equal on every part, and counterbalanced by the spring of the air within us, which is diffused through the whole body, and re-acts with an equal force against the outward pressure.

Now, fince the earth's furface contains, in round numbers 200,000,000 fquare miles, and every fquare mile 27,878,400 fquare feet, there must be 5,575,680,000,000;000 fquare feet on the earth's surface; which, multiplied by 2,160 pounds, (the pressure on each square foot) gives 12,043,468,800,000,000,000 pounds for the pressure or weight of the whole atmosphere.

The above experiment on the quickfilver, which is called the Torricellian experiment, after its inventor Torricellius, who made it about the year 1645, is the foundation of that instrument which is called the barometer, so useful in foretelling changes of the weather. In the common barometer

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the quickfilver in the ball below is left open to the pressure of the atmosphere, which, according as it increases in weight or denfity, preffes on the furface of the quickfilver, and forces it into the vacuum in the glass above. When the air is dense or heavy it supports the clouds and vapours, when it is rarefied and thin it is unable to support them, and they fall in the form of rain, hail, or fnow. When, therefore, the quickfilver rifes in the glass, we say it is a sign of fair weather, when it falls it prognosticates foul.

That the air is elastic is easily feen from various experiments, particularly when it is confined in a bladder or any flexible fubstance, when we find it may be compressed by force into a narrower compass, and that it will expand again when that force is removed. But of all instruments for shewing the elafficity as well as all the other properties of the air, the air. pump is the most complete. It was invented by the ever to be revered, the ever illustrious Boyle, though the Germans claim the invention, and attribute it to Otto Guericke; but if he really understood it, his knowledge extended no further than the fact, that air might be pumped out of a vessel like all other fluids, for I do not find that he ever applied it to any practical purpofes.

Whoever is acquainted with the confiruction of a common water-pump, can have no difficulty in comprehending the nature and action of the air pump; the principle is exactly the same, and I shall, therefore, without further preface, refer immediately to the plate to explain its operation.

Having put a wet leather on the plate LL of the air-pump, place the glass receiver M upon the leather, so that the holei in the plate may be within the glass. Then, turning the handle F backward and forward, the air will be pumped out of the receiver; which will then be held down to the plate by the pressure of the external air or atmosphere. For, as the handle F (fig. 2.) is turned backward, it raifes the pifton de in the barrel BK, by means of the wheel E and rack Dd: and, as the piston is leathered fo tight as to fit the barrel exactly, no air can get between the piston and barrel; and therefore all the air above d in the barrel is lifted up toward B, and a vacuum is made in the barrel from b to e; upon which part of the air in the receiver M (fig. 1.) by its fpring,

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rushes through the hole i, in the brass plate L L, along the pipe GG, which communicates with both barrels by the hollow trunk I H K (fig. 2.), and pushing up the valve b, enters into the vacant place be of the barrel BK. For wherever the refistance or pressure is taken off, the air will run to that place, if it can find a passage. Then, if the handle F is turned forward, the pifton de will be depressed in the barrel; and, as the air which had got into the barrel cannot be pushed back through the valve b, it will ascend through a hole in the pifton, and escape through a valve at d, and be hindered by that valve from returning into the barrel, when the piston is again raised. At the next raising of the piston, a vacuum is again made in the same manner as before, between b and e; upon which more of the air that was left in the receiver M gets out thence by its fpring, and runs into the barrel B K, through the valve B. The fame thing is to be understood with regard to the other barrel A I; and as the handle F is turned backward and forward, it alternately raifes and depresses the pistons in their barrels, always raising one while it depreffes the other. And as there is a vacuum made in each barrel when its piffon is raifed, the particles of air in the receiver M push out one another by their spring or elasticity, through the hole i, and pipe G G into the barrels: until at last the air in the receiver comes to be so much dilated, and its fpring fo far weakened, that it can no longer get through the valves, and then no more can be taken out. Hence there is no fuch thing as making a perfect vacuum in the receiver; for the quantity of air taken out at any one ftroke, will always be as the dentity thereof in the receiver : and therefore it is impossible to take it all out, because, suppoling the receiver and barrels of equal capacity, there will be always as much left as was taken out at the last turn of the the light of the first state at the water of and

There is a cock & below the pump plate, which being turned, lets the air into the receiver again; and then the receiver becomes loose, and may be taken off the plate. The barrels are fixed to the frame Eee by two screw-nuts ff, which press down the top-piece E upon the barrels; and the hollow trunk H (in fig. 2.) is covered by a box, as G H in fig. 1.

There is a glass tube I mmm n open at both ends, and about thirty-four inches long; the upper end communicating with

the hole in the pump-plate, and the lower end immersed in quickfilver at n in the vessel N. To this tube is fitted a wooden ruler mm, called the gage, which is divided into inches and parts of an inch, from the bottom at n (where it is even with the furface of the quickfilver), and continued up to the top, a little below I, to thirty or thirty-one inches.

As the air is pumped out of the receiver M, it is likewise pumped out of the glass tube 1 m n, because that tube opens into the receiver through the pump-plate; and as the tube is gradually emptied of air, the quickfilver in the veffel N is forced up into the tube by the pressure of the atmosphere. And if the receiver could be perfectly exhausted of air, the quickfilver would stand as high in the tube as it does at that time in the barometer: for it is supported by the same power or weight of the atmosphere in both.

The quantity of air exhausted out of the receiver on each turn of the handle, is always proportionable to the afcent of the quickfilver on that turn; and the quantity of air remaining in the receiver, is proportionable to the defect of the height of the quickfilver in the gage, from what it is at that

time in the barometer.

By means of the air-pump all the mechanical properties of air are, as I before observed, most completely ascertained. Thus the weight and pressure is clearly proved by a very easy and obvious experiment. Take a vessel of a long or cylindrical shape, which is open at the top, and place it on the pump; then press one of your hands on the top, so as to exclude the external air. You will find, as the veffel begins to be exhausted of air, a confiderable pressure on the back of your hand; and if the operation is continued, that pressure will even become painful, and you will find it impossible to remove your hand. This evinces that the weight of that co. lumn of air which is above must be considerable, and that the calculation above stated, of the weight which a man's body usually bears, is not overstrained. If, instead of the hand, a piece of bladder is tied over the open top of the vessel, you will see the bladder gradually funk in like a jellybag, and at length burst with considerable force by the preffure of the external air; or a flat piece of glass, placed in the fame fituation, will be broken in pieces. You will wonder oung can

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why the glass receiver, which, you see, is placed on the pump in sig 1, is not broken; but the reason of this is, in the first place, the form of the glass, which is globular or arched at top, and this is found, by long experience, to be the best form for supporting a weight; and, secondly, these receivers are generally made of thick glass, and with particular care.*

Various facts in nature are explained by understanding the pressure and force of the air. The word fuction is founded on a vulgar error, for, in fact, there is no fuch thing as fucion. In all cases where suction is supposed, a vacuum or void is created by some means, and the pressure of the atmosphere forces the fluid to fill up this void. Thus when children fuck at the breast, the mouth and lips of the child act as an air-pump. The child swallows the air in his mouth, while he holds the nipple fast in his lips, so that none can come in that way. A vacuum, of course, is created, and the external air preffing on the breafts of the nother, squeezes the milk into the infant's mouth. The action of cupping glaffes is explained on the same principle. The air is driven out of the cupping glass by means of heat, as in the experiment with the tea-cup) that part of the body where the glass is applied has therefore no pressure of ir upon it, and the fluids of the human body are driven to hat part where there is least resistance.

By the air-pump we are also convinced more clearly of the elasticity and compressibility of the air. Take a bladder from which you have almost totally exhausted the air, which appears quite flaccid and compressed, tie the neck of t tight as it was when full, and put it in the air-pump. Is the air is exhausted you will see the bladder gradually inflate, till, at length, it will be pussed out to the full size it was before you had expelled the air. Mr. Boyle relates hat, by means of the air-pump, he had rarefied common ir so as to make it fill nearly fourteen thousand times the pace it did before.

A fimilar effect would take place with a bladder, by carying it to the higher regions of the atmosphere, where, as

before

^{*} At a future period we mean to propose a philosophical subject to our oung candidates, when the prize will be a portable air-pump.

before explained, the air is thinner and lighter, and confequently its pressure less. If a bladder half full is carried up to the top of a high mountain, it will gradually dilate to its former fize.

If, instead of a bladder almost empty, a full blown bladder, or a glass bubble filled with air, and closely stopped, is put into the air-pump, as soon as the air is exhausted, the

bladder or the bubble will be burft in pièces.

The air is also capable of being rarefied by heat. If a bladder, half blown and tightly tied at the neck, is held to the fire, you will find that it will dilate to nearly its full fize; and if either a full blown bladder or a glass bubble filled with air is held close to a strong fire, you will find

they will burft.

That air is a compressible fluid must be evident, when we confider that it is elastic; and it must be further evident from what was faid in the last lecture on the use of the air veffel annexed to the forcing pump and common fire en-There is, however, a beautiful experiment expressive of the effects from compressed air, which, with the aid of the plate, I shall endeavour to describe. It is a kind of attificial fountain, which is made to fend out a fream or it of water by means fimilar to those employed in the fire en gine, that is, by a body of compressed air fo cing the water contained below it through a small pipe, and out of their or orifice of the pipe. In the plate, fig. 3, A B C D, is copper veffel, which may be made of any convenient form; within the veffel, you fee, is a fmall pipe or tube NO open at bottom, and with what is called a stop cock, such as I at the upper end, to keep in the air when it is necessary To fet the fountain a playing I first fill it about two-third full with water, as to A B for instance, then screw in the pipe, which must be made air tight by oiled leather. air contained between the surface of the water A B, and the top of the veffel is then of the same density with that of the atmosphere. I then take the condensing fyringe, fig. 4, and fcrew it above the stop cock, and force a quantity of air into the veffel, which, as it cannot return, forces its way through the water into the upper part of the fountain, where it is mains in a condensed state; while the air in the fountain

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veffel is condenfing, I turn the stop cock R to prevent the water getting out. I then fcrew on a jet or pipe with a fmall aperture at top, and when I turn the stop cock again, the condenfed air above, by its expansion, forces the water through the pipe, and out at the jet, in a beautiful fountain.

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The condensing syringe, fig 4, is made like a common fquirt or fyringe; but it has a valve at bottom, which, inflead of opening inwards as the valve of a pump, opens outwards at R. near the top of the fyringe there is a small hole P. When, therefore, the condenfing fyringe is screwed on the veffel, if I draw up the pifton (which is folid, as in a fquirt, and not with a valve, like the piston of a pump) there will be a vacuum left between that and the valve, till I draw up the pifton as far as the little hole P, near the top. When it gets past the hole, the external air will rush in and fill up the vacuum; when I push the piston down again, and by this action the valve below is opened, and the air is forced into the veffel—the valve then shuts, and restrains the

air from coming back again.

Air, it is faid, may be thus compressed into fifty thousand times less compass than its natural bulk, provided your apparatus is strong enough. On this principle of condensed air is constructed the air-gun, a very dangerous and destructive instrument. It was formerly a very complex machine, from having the chamber for containing the condensed air within the body or rather the but end of the gun. That which is now in use was invented by the late ingemous Benj. Martin. It is in shape exactly like a common gun. Just below the lock a copper ball screws on, which contains the condensed air; and it has a stop cock, which is turned when the ball is not on the gun. The bullet is rammed in as you charge a musket, but must fit the barrel very exactly. By drawing the trigger a fmall valve is opened at the bottom of the barrel, and it is so contrived as to let out only one charge of air at each pull of the trigger; the bullet is discharged with a force sufficient to kill an animal at the distance of fixty or seventy yards. The copper ball is filled by a condensing fyringe, such as that above described, and contains about ten charges. There are generally two these to each gun, and that which is not immediately in may be carried in the pocket.

In the next lecture we shall treat of the atmospheric

phenomena.

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NATURAL HISTORY OF THE BEETLE.

(Continued from vol. I. page 204.)

GENUS I.—SCARABEUS.

HIS genus includes, 1st. the bull-comber,* not very fix quent in England, and of a very fingular conformation. What particularly distinguishes it is the peculiar forms the thorax or breast; the two lateral points of which project beyond the head, having a small protuberance upon the side, whilst the middle point is shorter and somewhat raised. These long projecting horns seem given to the instead of the second of the s

The resemblance which these thoracic horns bear to be long spears carried by the soldiers of the Macedonian phalanx, has occasioned the name of phalangist, which the French naturalists apply to this insect.

2. THE DUNG BEETLE,*

Remarkable for choosing the most filthy residence, hear of dung and excrementatious matter. It is smooth, and a black colour above, some mixed with green; on the low side there are a few straggling vibrisse. The head resemble a hood, raised in the middle, and projecting at the edge the jaws extend beyond the head. The thorax has a grow in the middle; its circumference is marginated, and figure is round and smooth.

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^{*} Scarabæus Typhæus, Lin. Syst.
† Scarabæus pilularis, Lin. Syst.

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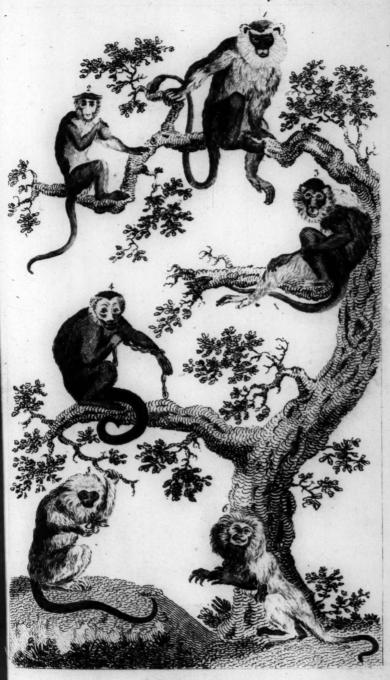
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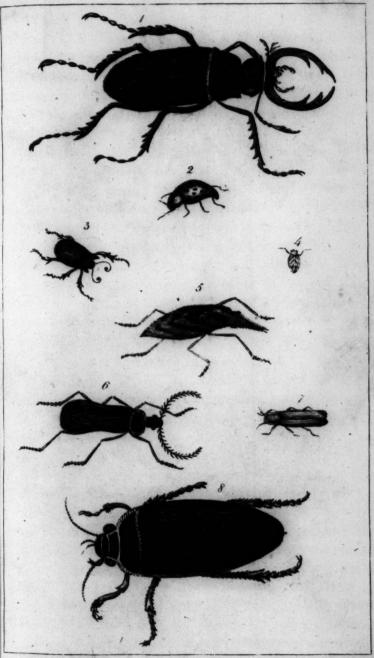
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Beetles.



- 1. Stag Beetle . 2. Wood Worm .
- 3. Hifter.
- 4. Gyrinus or Water flea.
- 5. Green Curculio.
- 6.Cantharis or Spanish Blister.
 - 7. Lampyrus or Fire fly.
- 8. Dytifcus or Water Beetle.

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[2. THE GOLDEN BEETLE,*

Which is deemed the most beautiful of the English insects. The whole body is of a glossy green, tinged with
yellow; underneath these colours partake of a shade of red,
which some naturalists have compared to leather, others to
finely polished copper. In the brilliancy of its hues it
rivals the emerald, and has sometimes been distinguished by
that name.

This scarabæus in its vermicular state remains on the surface of the ground, or covered to a little depth with the mould; there it preys on the roots of tender plants. After it is transformed into a winged infect it chiefly delights in the flowers of the rose and piony: it is consequently an inhabitant of the gardens, where its transient beauty is reckoned a small compensation for the mischief of which it is guilty. In the impure abode of the dung-beetle, that animal may be less pleasing to the spectator; but in return it is productive of less harm, and is less exposed to injury in a dwelling, of which it remains the unenvied possessor.

GENUS II .- LUCANUS.

The animals of this tribe are the largest British insects; they are distinguished by the antennæ, which terminate in a knob, stattened on one side, and divided into a number of laminæ. The jaws are extended beyond the head, incurvated, and beset with teeth.

The lucani feed upon the liquor that exudes from oaks, which they fuck with their tongues. The females deposit their eggs in the trunks of decayed trees, such as the oak and the ash. The larvæ or grubs lodge under the bark or in the hollow of old trees, which they gnaw and reduce into a fine powder, and there transform themselves into chrysalides. They are found all over the island of Great Britain, but most frequently in Kent and Sussex. With the noxious effects of these animals on growing timber we are not acquainted; but notwithstanding their enormous size, it is probable that they are far less destructive than those that prey upon the roots of corn.

^{*} Scarabæus auralus, Lin. Syst. + Vide Regne Animale, tom. ii. p. 8.

1 Idem uhi supra. | Syst. Nat. p. 559.

§ Barbut. Gen. Insect. p. 17.

and the first state

In this genus is included,

1ft. THE STAG-BEETLE,*

Readily diffinguished by its superior magnitude, which entitles it to the first rank among the insect tribes: it is however characterized by another peculiarity no less fingular, and that is the large moveable maxillæ, refembling in form the horns of a ftag. Their similarity in shape to the horns of the animal above mentioned has ftruck every naturalift, and has, with equal propriety, procured for the infect

the appellation of the flying-ftag. †

The refidence of these animals is commonly the oak; in fome parts of the country they are but rarely to be met with; and though the largest of all the coleopterous in this part of the world, they are much smaller than those of the fame species in countries where woods are more extensive, and the climate is warmer. In these they acquire an amazing strength and vigour; and the maxillæ, whose ordinary office is to tear the bark of trees, are occasionally converted into offensive weapons, which are carefully avoided by fuch as have experienced the feverity of their bite.

2d. THE PARALLELIPIPED BEETLE.

The body of this species is black; the horns smaller than those of the preceding, which in other respects it nearly refembles, and the body is oblong, and of that shape expressed by the Linnæan name. It frequents the meadow grounds, and its habits are therefore probably different from those of the flag; but very little relating to its economy is known.

Linnæus enumerates five other species of the lucanæ, viz. the capreolus, the tridentatus, the interruptus, the carinatus,

and the caraboides.

GENUS III .- DERMESTES.

We are now come to a tribe of beetles, much inferior in fize to those already mentioned, but of superior beauty.

Lucanus Cervus, Lin. Syft.

+ Cervus volans. Vide Mouffet, p. 148. Aldrovand. infect. p. 151. Imperati, p. 169, and Charleton, p. 46.

† Lucanus parallelipipedus, Lin. Syft. Scar bæus platyceros, Rai.

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Many of the infects belonging to this genus exhibit a variety of the richest colouring that slows even from nature's pencil. They are near neighbours of man, and often troublesome companions: one species, the lardarius, is destructive to meat, and is very difficult to prevent from entering into the repositories of the cook. It is a still more unwelcome intruder into the cabinets of the curious; being very destructive to birds, insects, and other subjects of natural history, in a state of preservation. Arsenic is the most certain preventative against its depredations there. Many species of this family, as well as their larvæ, inhabit dried skins, the bark of trees, rotten wood, seeds, slowers, and the carcases of dead animals.

The antennæ of the infects of this tribe principally exhibit their generic characters. They terminate in a perfoliated club of an oval form, and divided into different plates or leaves, which feem to be united together by a small stalk. The thorax is of a convex form, and slightly margined: the head is bent inward, and, as it were, concealed in the thorax.*

Ift. THE DOMESTIC DERMESTES:

The form of this infect is oblong, and almost cylindrical. When touched, it is struck with such an apprehension of danger, that it instantly draws back its head under the thorax, and its feet under the abdomen, remaining motionless in that position till the danger is over.

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Of all infects this is the most destructive to wooden furniture, where it is found in vast numbers, their larva state perforating it into those small round holes that appear on the external surface, while the inner parts are reduced to powder. There are few kinds of wood so hard as to be proof against the attacks of these animals, after they have remained long enough out to be drained of their natural juices. It does not seem to be ascertained how the eggs of this animal came at first to be deposited in timber: it would seem, that the winged animal which produces them has the power of perforating cells for their reception; but it is evident that the young in their larva state have a much greater

^{*} Systema Nat. p. 561.

degree of voracity than the perfect animals, which are feldom found devouring furniture, in comparison with those worms which no invention has been able to destroy. The aerid varnish, which is now extracted in such abundance from coal, promises to be the most effectual remedy against their encroachments.

2d. THE DERMESTES LARDARIUS,

Is of a black colour, and feeds upon cadaverous carcafes, and meat verging to a state of putrefaction. It makes its way into the museum, and is seen among preparations, in numbers more than sufficient to gratify the curiosity of the possession. In fact, it is among the greatest enemies of his labours; and in the larva state makes the greatest liavock among the collections of infects. It then assumes the form of a hairy oblong worm, which is divided into segments alternately of a dark and light colour. In that form it is often found deeply penetrating into old bacon, which it renders useless.

The infects of this genus are extremely numerous; Linnaus has enumerated thirty species, and is probably far from having completed the catalogue. The violet dermestes exhibits the most brilliant shades of that colour.* The thorax is covered with greenish hairs; the legs black, forming upon the whole a pleasing object, if we could forget that its residence, both in the larva and perfect state, is in the bodies of dead animals.

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY. No. VIII.

THE LIFE OF GEORGE ANDERSON, A. M.

IT is one of the many advantages resulting from a free government, and has ever been the peculiar boast of our own, that the career of glory and ambition is open to all; that the arts and sciences confer distinction on their votaries; and that talents, when accompanied by worth, may

* Syit, Nat. Ord. 1. gen, iii. frec. 13.

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afpire to the highest departments in the state. It is far otherwise in Asia; in China the son of the lowest artisan is doomed, by irrevocable custom, to follow the profession of his father; and in Hindoostan, the Pariar must appertain to that vile cast for life.

These preliminary observations are not wholly inapplicable to the subject of this memoir, who rose from humble beginnings in consequence of the early dawnings of genius, which distinguished him from the crowd, and luckily obtained for him the patronage and protection of a succession of amiable men.

Mr. Anderfon was born at Weston, a village near Aylesbury, in Buckinghamshire, in November 1760. His father was a peafant, undiffinguished either by wealth or talents: one of those plain, simple, industrious men, who rear a numerous and healthy progeny, on the fcanty profits of a finall farm, and thus effentially ferve the community, without enriching themselves. Both his parents died while he was yet young; but from his mother he was lucky enough to receive some little instruction; and, what is rather unufual, this boy, who was the younger of two fons, was actually taught to read and speak at the same time. At the usual age he was sent to a little day school, but could never be prevailed upon to take more than one lesson. On his elder brother the task of instruction seems to have devolved. in consequence of this event, and from him he received the first rudiments of arithmetic. Such a conduct made a deepimpression on a heart naturally grateful, and was afterwards amply repaid in acts of beneficence, to the fon and daughter of that relative, when he himself had been fnatched away by death from the possibility of participating in his bounty.

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At an early age George, who seemed to have been doomed like the rest of his family to the plough and the sail, attended to all the little details of the farm; and, on the approach of maturer years, assisted in its more laborious operations. While in this obscure situation, and occupied by the daily round of toil and exertion, his mind seems to have been to the full as active as his body. Like Ferguson, in a nearly similar situation, he conceived an irrestitible attachment to mathematics; and bereaved himself of some of the

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hours usually devoted to sleep, in order to cultivate his fa-

Not content with the applause of a village circle, he soon aspired to celebrity, and panted to behold his name and labours in print. This harmless and perhaps laudable ambition was luckily gratified; for happening by accident, in 1777, to see the London Magazine, which contained some mathematical problems and arithmetical questions, he was fortunate enough to transmit a satisfactory solution to each; and his letter, signed "George Anderson," and dated from "Weston, Bucks," was accordingly inserted."

Mr. Bonnycastle, the author of several valuable treatises on mathematics and astronomy, and now one of the instructors in the royal military academy at Woolwich, happening to take up the periodical work just mentioned, while in London, was astonished at this attempt on the part of a young man from the same county with himself, knowing that his education must have been very limited, and his

means of information extremely confined.

On that gentleman's return to his father's in Bucking-hamshire, he accordingly repaired to Weston, about seven miles distant, inquired for the youth, and found him threshing in a barn, the walls of which were covered with triangles and parallelograms. During this first interview, the bashfulness of the tyro, in the presence of a master, was invincible; and it was with the utmost dissipulty that a single word could be extracted from him. A second conference at Weedon, the residence of Mr. B's family, proved more fortunate; and the loan of "Simpson's Fluxions," and two or three other books, won upon his heart, and inspired him with a regard that soon became mutual, and endured through life.

In the mean time the acquirements of this provincial prodigy had buzzed about the neighbourhood; and it was at length reported to a respectable elergyman, that the village of Weston contained a young peasant who, with few books and scarcely any master, had attained such a proficiency in mathematical learning, as to become the correspondent of a periodical work published in London. The vicar of Whischurch was not very opulent; but he possessed a benevolest ge gu ter fro

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heart. Actuated by the noblest and most disinterested sentiments, he saw and conversed with the boy. After this he consulted the gentleman already alluded to respecting his talents, and on receiving a favourable report, conceived the generous resolution of cultivating them by means of a regular education. His care, which was truly paternal, extended even to his health; and, lest he should be cut off from that society to which he hoped he might one day prove an ornament, by the ravages of a malignant disease, he took him home, and caused him to be inoculated for the small-pox.

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After some presatory instruction at the grammar school belonging to New College, Oxford, he was matriculated in the university, and entered of Wadham College. In that celebrated seminary, instead of confining himself wholly, as was expected, to his former pursuits, he applied himself to the study of classical learning; but, although he attained considerable proficiency, yet he made no conspicuous signre. The reason of this is pretty obvious: the languages were unconnected with his ruling passion. It was the stone-cutter of Mezieres cultivating a taste for nautical knowledge.

Let it not be supposed, however, that this is intended to convey the slightest reflection on his generous patron: on the contrary, it is well known to all his friends that the education he received, upon this occasion, fitted him for the active scenes of life, and qualified him for the department to which he was afterwards appointed.

While at Oxford he became acquainted with Dr. White and Mr. Henderson, both of whom resembled him not a little in the early part of their history: the first having been indebted for his education to the beneficence of a country gentleman; the second to the fatherly care of a clergyman of some celebrity.

Mr. Anderson's expences were supported in part, during the first year, by the present Earl of Chestersield, and the late Sir John Dashwood; the greater share, however, was supplied out of an income, at that period far from being large, by his early friend the Rev. Mr. King; and, in a short time after, the whole charge devolved entirely on him.

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But what was infinitely more than this, he devoted his time to the youth of his adoption, and actually superintended both his morals and his education. To the honour of mankind, there are many instances of similar liberality in respect to pecuniary affistance; there is scarcely one, however, in which personal attention has been superadded: this, therefore, forms an example equally rare and honourable.

As the church seemed to present an asylum to a youth of merit, George Anderson took the degree of A. M. and was admitted to deacon's orders. Here, however, his ecclesiastical career ended; for his prospect of obtaining a living was but small, and a country curacy had but sew charms for him; he therefore never qualified himself as a priest.

In January 1785 he repaired to the metropolis, that great mart of preferment, in consequence of an invitation from Scrope Bernard, Esq. M. P. brother-in-law to Mr. King. This gentleman, who was well acquainted with his history, and had seen him frequently at Oxford, became deeply interested in his future welfare in life, and now undertook the care of introducing him to notice in London. He was accordingly provided with lodgings in Villiers-street, in the Strand, until some permanent provision could be procured for him.

After between two and three months delay, the object in view was effected; for Mr. Bernard, who had always evinced an unremitting zeal for his advancement, introduced him to his friend Mr. now Lord Grenville, and he recommended him to Mr. Dundas, then, as now, at the head of the board of control, in which he obtained an appointment in the fpring of 1785. His income at first was small; but he no sooner discovered his ability to analyze the most intricate arithmetical statements, and apply his mathematical knowledge to the sinances of British India, than his salary was increased to a very liberal allowance, and himself promoted to the respectable situation of accountant-general.

Deeming this a favorable opportunity to fettle in life, he married a very worthy and amiable young woman in 1790 (who still survives him), and soon after removed to a respectable house in Abington-street, Westminster.

Mr. Anderson was of course utterly ignorant of India af-

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fairs on his entering the office at Whitehall; but he foon obtained a minute acquaintance with every thing relative to the history, revenue, and resources of the English dominions in Asia.

To his eagerness to fulfil his public duty, respecting the arrangement of the budget for 1796, his death may in a great measure be attributed; for, on finding himself indisposed, he had recourse to medicine, and even increased the dose prescribed by his physician, to dispel what at first appeared a slight illness, that he might finish his calculations in due time. The disease, however, increased in an alarming degree, and speedily proved mortal: such indeed was its violence, that Dr. Pearson, of whose skill he entertained a high opinion, and who readily afforded his friendly aid on this occasion, observed that he never knew but two similar instances in the course of his whole practice.

On the evening of Tuesday, April 26, 1796, he was first attacked while in the house of a worthy and respectable friend, with whom he had been accustomed to dine once a week during many years. Finding himself better next day, he repaired to Whitehall as usual, but, on his return, was obliged to retire to bed, and was carried off on the Saturday morning following at one o'clock. A few days after his body was attended by several respectable friends to Pancras church-yard, where he was interred.

Thus died, in the thirty-fixth year of his age, George Anderson, who, by the munificence of an early patron, and the dawning of his own genius, without the aid either of wealth or family connexions, rose to a respectable and confidential employment. And it is but justice here to state, that the president of the India Board, on hearing of this sudden event, instantly determined to alleviate the melancholy situation of the afflicted widow, and, in a letter filled with endogiums on her husband, described his death "as a publications." But his attention did not stop here, for he soon after procured a pension for Mrs. Anderson, and presented her with a sum of money to supply her expences in the mean time.

Having none of his own, Mr. Anderson adopted two

children of that brother to whom he was so much attached; the one a boy, whom he sent to India, and who is now a cadet on the Bombay establishment; the other a girl, on whom he was bestowing a suitable education at the time of his death.

Throughout all the relations of life his conduct was exemplary. He was a good husband, a good brother, a good uncle, a good master, and a good friend; and by none was his death more sincerely lamented than by those who had fostered his rising powers. No man ever possessed less vanity, and, although often consulted by administration, he was never heard to boast of any intimacy or connexion with any of the members of the cabinet.

He never aspired to superiority, for his manners were simple and unsophisticated, and he was unambitious of

fining at the expence of others.

Mr. Anderson published but two works; the first, "Arenarius, a treatise on numbering the fand," being a translation from the Greek of Archimedes, appeared in 1784, previously to his arrival in town. The second is entitled, "A General View of the Variations which have taken place in the Affairs of the East India Company since the conclusion of the War in India in 1784." The former has never been seen by the writer of this article, but he has often admired the perspicuity and precision of the latter. It possesses the rare merit of being utterly devoid of party spirit, malevolence, and recrimination; and accordingly made a deeper impression on the public mind than if it had been written with the bitterness of a zealot, and dissigured by the revilings of a partisan.

A few of his friends, who loved him while alive, and refpect his memory now he is no more, have given orders to erect a fimple marble tablet, with an epitaph at once ex-

preffive of his worth and their esteem.

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MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUS-TOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF TCHOKA, OR SEGALIEN ISLAND.

THE island Tchoka is separated from the eastern coast of Tartary by a channel about six fathoms deep, which forms a communication between the seas of Japan and Okhotsk; it comprehends, in its longest diameter, the whole space between the forty-sixth and sifty-fourth parallel of north latitude. It is well wooded, and mountainous towards the center, but flat and level along the coast, the soil of which appears admirably adapted to the purposes of agriculture. Vegetation is extremely vigorous here; forests of pine, willow, oak, and birch, cover nearly the whole surface of the island. The sea abounds with fish, as well as the rivers and brooks, which swarm with salmon and trout of an excellent quality.

The inhabitants of this island are very intelligent and honest, without distrust, and are willing to communicate with strangers. They are of moderate size, and strongly built: their common height is five seet, and the tallest among them do not exceed sive seet sour inches; but men of this size are very uncommon among them. They have large heads, and broader saces than Europeans: their countenance is animated and agreeable, though it is destitute of that regularity and grace which we esteem so effectial to beauty. The upper lip, in a sew of the inhabitants, is tattooed, and tinged of a blue colour; in their ears, which are small, they wear glass ornaments and silver rings.

The women are not so large as the men, and are of a more delicate figure; they wear the hair long and flowing; their dress differs but little from that of the men, which consists of a kind of surtout that wraps before, where it is sastened by little buttons, strings, and a girdle placed above the haunches. This surtout is made of skin, or quilted nankeen, a kind of stuff that they make of willow bark: it generally reaches to the calf of the leg, sometimes even lower, which, for the most part, renders the use of drawers

unnecessary:

unnecessary: some of them wear seal-skin boots, but the greater number of them go bare-footed and bare-headed: a few, indeed, have a bandage of bear-skin round the head, which is rather as an ornament than a defence against the weather. On their right thumb they wear a large ring of ivory, horn, or lead. They all wear a girdle, to which they hang their knife, as a defence against the bears; and several little pockets, in which are kept their flint and seel, their pipe, and their box of tobacco for smoking, which is a general practice among them. They suffer their nails to grow to a considerable length; and they salute each other by kneeling and prostrating themselves on the ground.

Their huts, which are sufficient to defend them against rain and other inclemencies of the air, are small, and confiructed of frame-work, strongly put together, the sides being silled up with the bark of trees, and the tops are thatched with dry grass, in the same manner as our cottages. Within these houses is a square of earth raised about six inches above the ground, and supported on the sides by a strong planking, on this they make the fire; along the sides of the apartment are benches twelve or sitteen inches high, which they cover with mats, on which

they fleep.

The utenfils that they employ in cooking their food confil of an iron pot, shells, vessels made of wood and birch, bark of various shapes and workmanship; and they take up their food with little sticks; they have two meals a day, one at

Some of the habitations in the more fouthern part of the island are much better built and furnished, having for the most part planked floors; and vessels of Japan porcelain, on which the owners set a great value, probably on account of the trouble and expence at which they are procured. They cultivate no kind of vegetable in the island, but live entirely upon dried and smoked fish, together with the little game they take by hunting, and the spontaneous produce of the country, which they turn to their own advantage with the greatest skill.

Each family has its own canoe, and implements for filling and hunting. Their arms are bows, javelins, and a ing.
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kind of fpontoon, which they use principally in bear hunting. By the side of their houses are the magazines, in which they lay up the provision, collected and prepared during the summer, for their winter subsistence. It consists of dried sish, wild garlic, celery, angelica, a bulbous root called apè, better known by the name of the yellow lily of Kamtschatka, and sish oil, which is preserved in the stomachs of bears and other large animals. These magazines are made of planks closely joined together, and raised above the ground on stakes about four seet high.

Dogs are the only domestic animals belonging to the natives of Tchoka; they are not very large, have shaggy hair, pricked ears, and a sharp long muzzle, their cry is

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The inhabitants of this island, who are of a mild and unsuspecting disposition, have some intercourse with the Chinese, by means of the Manshur Tartars, with the Russians to the north of their island, and with the Japanese to the south; but the articles of trade are of no great consequence, consisting only of a sew surs, and the oil of the whale, which is caught on the southern coast of Tchoka. In extracting this oil they use no art, but drag the whale on a sloping ground, where it putresses, and dig a trench at the foot of the slope, which receives the oil that is spontaneously separated from it.

Of the inhabitants of Baie de Langle, which is situated on the south-west part of Tchoka, M. La Pérouse speaks with great respect and admiration. "We have not," says he, "since our departure from France met with any people who have more excited our curiosity and admiration. We knew that the most numerous nations, and perhaps those who were the earliest civilized, inhabit countries which border on these islands; it does not appear that they have ever conquered them, because there were no temptations for them to attempt it: but it was very contrary to our ideas to find among a people of hunters and fishermen, who do not cultivate any of the products of the earth, and who have no slocks, manners in general more grave and gentle, and an intellect, perhaps, more extensive than among any nation of Europe. The knowledge of the best

Vol. II. I informed

informed class of Europeans certainly renders them, in all respects, very superior to the islanders with whom we communicated at Baie de Langle; but among the people of these islands knowledge is much more extensively spread than it is among the lower classes of people in Europe: all the individuals there feem to have received the same education. Their attention was attracted by our arts and our manufactures; they turned the Guffs over and over again, they talked of them among themselves, and endeavoured to discover by what means they had been fabricated. They are well acquainted with the weaver's shuttle; the loom, which is used among them, though small enough to be eafily portable, is a very complete instrument, with which they manufacture linens exactly fimilar to ours, but the thread of it is made of the bark of the willow tree. also prepare, by means of spindles, a different kind of thread of the hair of animals, or of the bark of willow and the great nettle, from which they fabricate good stuffs."

From the short stay which M. La Pérouse made in the island, he was not able to discover whether there was any settled form of government existing, but the greatest respect is paid to the old men; and, he observes, that their manners are so mild, that if they were shepherds, and had numerous slocks, he could not form a different idea of the manners

and cuftoms of the patriarchs of old.

These islanders are very poor, three or four only having pendent ear-rings of silver, ornamented with blue glass beads. Their other little ornaments were of copper. Their pipes, and their steels to strike fire with, were of Japanese or Chinese manfacture; the former were of queen's metal skilfully wrought. They set a value only on things which were useful: iron and stuffs prevailed over every thing; they understand metals as well as Europeans, and prefer silver to copper, copper to iron, &c. They are not backward in asking of strangers for those things which they esteem as useful, but are exceedingly scrupulous in never taking any article, however much they may value it, unless it is actually given them. Their attention, in this respect, extends so far as not to permit them to take from the shore a single salmon caught by Europeans, although thousands

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These people are well versed in the geography of their own country, and of the coast of Tartary, which lies opposite their island. M. La Pérouse observes, that upon intimating to them a defire that they should describe their country, and that of the Manshur's, " one of the old men then role up, and, with the end of his staff, sketched on the fand the coast of Tartary to the west, running nearly north and fouth. To the east opposite, and in the same direction, he represented their own island, and, placing his hand on his breast, he gave us to understand, that he had just then sketched his own country: he had left a strait between h's island and Tartary, and, turning himself towards our ships, which were visible from the shore, he marked by a fingle touch, that they might pass into it. To the fouth of this island he represented another, and left a strait, at the fame time, fignifying that there was still a course for ourthips.

" Another of these islanders, not more than thirty years of age, observing that the figures sketched on the fand were effaced, took some paper and one of our pencils, on which he sketched his own island, which he named Tchoka, and, by a stroke of the pencil, designated the little river upon the banks of which we were then standing, which he placed at two-thirds of the length of the island from north to fouth. He afterwards made a draught of the Manshur land, and added to it the river Segalien; he placed the mouth of this river a little to the fouthward of the north point of thisisland, and by touches of his pencil to the number of seven; he marked how many days were necessary for a canoe to go from the place where we were to the mouth of the Segalien. river. In the same way he shewed how many days it required for a canoe to fail up this river, as far as the placeswhere they carried on their traffic."

At the fouthern extremity of this island is the Baie de Crillon; it was here for the first time that M. La Pérouse received the visit of islanders on board, for they had hitherto testified no curiosity, nor the smallest desire to see his frigates. At first these betrayed signs of distrust; but their

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fears foon subsided, and their confidence became extreme. He loaded them with presents of nankeen, filks, iron tools, beads, tobacco, brandy, and whatever else seemed agreeable to them; but he soon discovered that his tobacco and brandy were the commodities most agreeable to them: of these, however, he was obliged to be sparing, the former being necessary for the ships' companies, and he was searful of the consequences of the latter.

The figures of these islanders are different from those of the more northern inhabitants of the country; they are strongly built, well sized, vigorous men, with seatures of a very regular proportion. Their beards reach to the breast, and their arms, neck, and back are covered with hair. Their stature is not much lower than that of the French. The various parts of their bodies are well proportioned; their different muscles strongly expressed, which make them

appear, in general, very fine men.

Their manners are grave, and they express their thanks by noble gestures, but their solicitations for obtaining presents they repeat even to importunity; while their gratitude never extends so far as to offer a return for the gifts bestowed upon them, not even of their salmon, with which their canoes are often filled.

All the dreffes of these people are woven with their own hands: their houses display an elegance and neatness far surpassing those of the continent opposite them: their surriture is of excellent workmanship, and almost all of Japanese manufacture.

It is a difficult question to determine, whether these islanders may not be a race of men absolutely different from that which are observed on the continent, although they are only separated from it by a channel of three or sour leagues wide, which is, in a great measure, obstructed by banks of sand and weed; they have, however, the same manner of living; hunting and sishing, in particular, surnish nearly their whole subsistence. They suffer the most fertile land to be overgrown with weeds, and they both have probably despised the raising of slocks and herds, which they might have brought from the head of the Segalien river of Japan. But even the same diet has formed very different constitutions.

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constitutions. Perhaps the origin of the Tartars on the borders of the sea, as far as the vicinity of the northern coast of Segalien, is common to them, as well as the Kamt-schadales, Coriacs, and those species of men who, like the Laplanders, are to the human species what their birch and stunted fir trees are to the trees of the more southern forests. The inhabitants of Tchoka or Segalien island, on the contrary, are very superior in bodily strength to the Japanese, Chinese, and Manshur Tartars; their seatures are more regular, and more nearly resembling the form of Europeans.

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Vol. II. p. 19. line 22: for north read fouth.

A COURSE OF HISTORY AND CHRONOLOGY,

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A COMPLETE METHOD OF ARTIFICIAL MEMORY.

(Continued from page 328. vol. I.)

THE Crusades, or holy wars, undertaken by the Chris-I tian powers to drive the Turks from Jerusalem and the adjacent countries, called the Holy Land, were projected by Peter, an hermit, patronized by Pope Urban II., in the year 1094. The foldiers engaged in this war were called Crusaders, from a red cross which each wore upon the right shoulder, with the motto, Volonté de Dieu, "God's will." The Christians began the siege of Jerusalem on the 9th of June, and gained poffession of the place the 15th of July, 1099. On the 22d of the same month the chiefs of all the armies affembled to choose a king. GODFREY, of Bulloigne, was unanimously elected the first monarch of the new kingdom of Jerusalem. Historians affert, that his piety would. not permit him to wear a diadem of gold in the city where his Saviour had been crowned with thorns. Godfrey died. in the year 1100.

The Albigenses were a set of Christians in the south of France, who, from neglecting the rights of the church, and opposing the regular clergy, were denominated heretics, and against whom a crusade was undertaken, under the conduct

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of Simon de Montsort, who was killed at the siege of Toulouse, whither the Albigenses had sled for protection. The Count of Toulouse was stripped of his dominions, and these people, though the most innocent and inossensive of mankind, were exterminated with all the circumstances of extreme violence and barbarity. Hence originated the tribunal of the Inquisition, a court celebrated for infamy and cruelty, which was invented by Dominic, the sounder of an order of men called the Dominican friars; as Francis was of that of the Franciscan. The former were called preaching, and the

latter mendicant or begging friars.

In the disputes between King John and his barons, a conference was agreed upon, which took place at Runnymede, between Staines and Windsor, when the barons obtained from the king the famous deed called Magna Charta. This important deed confifted of thirty-eight articles, in which the judicial authority was regulated. The perfon and property of the individual were fecured. The fafety of the merchant and foreigner was provided for. By this charter the higher class of citizens gave up a number of oppressive privileges, which they had been accustomed to consider as their undoubted rights. The implements of tillage were fecured to the bondman, and, for the first time, perhaps, in the annals of the world, a civil war terminated by making stipulations in favour of those unfortunate men, to whom avarice and lust of dominion, continued, over the greatest part of the earth, to deny the common rights of mankind. Under HENRY III. great disturbances arose, which were also terminated by solemn confirmations given to the GREAT CHARTER.

WAT TYLER, whose proper name was Walter, and a tyler by trade, lived at Deptsord. In the time of Richard II. a poll-tax was levied of three groats per head upon every person, of whatever state or condition, above sisteen years of age. The collector of this tax insisted upon Tyler's paying for a daughter who was under age, which being resused, the tax-gatherer proceeded to treat the girl with brutal sudeness, which so enraged the father that he knocked out the russian's brains with his hammer. This circumstance excited all the discontented, and Tyler was joined in a few days by sifty thousand men, who selected him as their chies. With this

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force he marched to London, to demand an abolition of the tax, and a redress of other grievances. A conference was held in Smithfield, during which the Lord Mayor of London coming behind Tyler killed him by a violent blow on the head.

In the reign of Henry VI., during which the contentions raged between the families of York and Lancaster, a man in the lower ranks of life, named JACK CADE, but who assumed the more popular name of John Mortimer, excited the people of Kent, to the number of twenty thousand, against the government. In an action near Seven-Oaks he defeated the king's forces, and slew their general, Sir Humphrey Stafford. He then advanced towards London, where his forces were defeated and dispersed, and Cade himself killed by a gentleman of Sussex.

That property of the MAGNET, which is called its directive power, that is, of its always pointing in one direction, either duly or nearly north and fouth, was discovered by Flavio. By it mariners are enabled to conduct their vessels through vast oceans in any given direction; by it miners are guided in their works below the surface of the earth, and travellers conducted through deserts otherwise impassable.

The invention of GUNPOWDER is generally ascribed to Michael Schwarts, though many people suppose it was known to our countryman, Roger Bacon, a century before this. Other writers carry it still farther back.

The art of PRINTING was invented by Peter Scheffer, a workman under Faust and Guttenburg, of the city of Mentz. It was brought into England by Will. Caxton, a mercer, of London, in 1471, and he had a press at Westminster for twenty-three years.

Columbus having studied mathematics with great success, and particularly cosmography, formed to himself the idea that there must be another continent beyond the western ocean, which he first communicated to the king of Portugal, from whom he received no encouragement; and afterwards to Ferdinand, king of Spain, for whom he took possession of Cuba and Hispaniola, and returned to Europe, where he was received with every demonstration of joy and respect. In a second voyage he discovered Jamaica; and in a third Pæria,

Pæria, or New Andalusia, a province of Terra Firma in South America, which was the first place he had seen on the new continent.

MARTIN LUTHER. See an interesting life of Luther in

the first vol. of the Preceptor, po 305.

PROTESTANTS took their name from the protest made against the errors of the Romish church, by the early reformers, at the diet held at Spires.

SMALCALD, a city of Franconia, is famous for the convention of the Protestant princes, who, having assembled there, called to their assistance Luther, Melancthon, and others, in order to contrive means effectually to oppose the emperor, who, under the pretence of religion, was attacking the liberties of Germany.

The Council of TRENT was the twentieth and last general council held by order of the Pope, the design of it was to condemn the doctrines of Luther, Zuinglius, and other re-

formers.

The massacre of seventy thousand French protestants, throughout the kingdom of France, attended with circumstances of the most horrid treachery and cruelty, began at Paris at midnight, Aug. 24, 1572, by secret orders from Charles IX., king of France, at the instigation of the queen dowager, Catherine de Medicis, his mother. In history it is generally styled the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Holland was formerly under the Spanish government, but the tyranny of the kings of Spain becoming insupportable, the inhabitants, under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, and by the assistance of Queen Elizabeth, revolted, and formed

a republic, called the UNITED PROVINCES.

The Spanish Invasion, commonly known by the name of the Invincible Armada, was projected by Philip, king of Spain, and intended for the destruction of the liberties of England; but was dispersed and destroyed by a violent storm.

The GUNPOWDER TREASON was a plot devised for the purpose of destroying the whole parliament of England: to accomplish which the conspirators hired the vault or cellar under the House of Lords, to which they conveyed thirty-fix barrels of gunpowder, and having covered them with fag-

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Am Tor gots and billets, any persons were admitted as if it contained nothing dangerous. A hint only of this important and dreadful secret being given to Lord Monteagle, the plot was discovered, the mischief prevented, and the conspirators punished.

MASSANIELLO, or Thomas Anello, a fisherman at Naples, caused a revolt in that city on account of the taxes, and was joined by fifty thousand persons. He ruled with great authority for about ten days, during which he kept the viceroy, senate, and nobles in the utmost terror. He was at length killed, and his body thrown into a ditch.

CROMWELL. See Preceptor, vol. I. p. 323.

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Jamaica is an island in the West Indies, about one hundred and sixty miles long and sisty broad. Its vallies are embellished with plantations curiously laid out, and always verdant. The whole island is divided into three counties, viz. Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall, and these into twenty parishes or districts, each of which sends two members to the assembly, and allows a complete maintainance to a minister. It was taken from the Spaniards in 1655, and has remained since in the hands of the English.

GIBRALTAR, in Spain, was formerly thought to be impregnable, but was taken by Sir George Rooke, and has belonged to this country ever fince 1704. It has been feveral times attacked by the Spaniards. Their last effort was in 1782, by means of floating batteries, mounted with two hundred and twelve brass cannons and mortars; these were destroyed by red-hot balls, prepared under the direction of General Elliot.

THE ANTIENT AND MODERN HISTORY OF NATIONS.

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CHINA.

CHINA is bounded by Tartary and a stone wall on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from America, on the east; by the Chinese sea and the kingdom of Tonquin south; and on the west by Thibet, between which and China vast deserts and mountains intervene.

This

This great empire, containing more than one million of fquare miles, is divided into fifteen provinces, exclusive of that part which is fituated without the great wall, each of which might, for extent, fertility, populousness, and opulence, pass

for feparate and distinct kingdoms.

The Chinese, as a nation, pretend to an antiquity beyond the limits of all credibility; they carry their history back many millions of years before the period affigned by the Scriptures to the creation of the world. According to the Chinese histories the first monarch of the whole universe, that is, of China, was called Puon ku, which is a word denoting the highest antiquity. Puon-ku was succeeded by Tieneboang, which fignifies the emperor of heaven; to this monarch they afcribe the invention of letters. He was fucceeded by Ti-boang, the emperor of the earth, who is faid to have been skilled in astronomy; to have divided the day and night; appointing thirty days to make the period of one moon; and he fixed the winster folflice to the eleventh moon. Tihoang was succeeded by Gine-hoang, sovereign of men, who shared the government with nine brothers. These are faid to have taught their subjects to build houses, cities, &c.

The reigns of these four emperors make up but one of what the Chinese called ki, "ages" or "periods," of which there were nine before Fo-hi, who is acknowledged, by the most fensible writers, to be the founder of their empire.

The history of the second ki or age contradicts every thing faid in the first; it tells us that instead of living in houses, the people dwelt in caves, or perched upon trees, like the fowls of heaven. Of the next four ages we have the account of nothing remarkable. In the feventh and eighth ages the people began to clothe themselves with the skins of beasts, which they prepared for the purpose. In the ninth period the invention of letters is attributed to Tsang-bie, who is said to have received them from a divine tortoife that carried them on his shell. During this period also music, money, carriages, commerce, &c. were invented. This is the fubstance of that part of the Chinese history which is generally admitted to be fabulous, it having been afcertained by the most accurate investigation that all Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yau, who was mod

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* A1 reigned or fover pelled fi was the seventh after Fo-bi, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, and unsupported by authentic records.

The tenth age commenced with Fohi, who was elected king on account of his superior merit, and was styled Tyenttse, that is, the son of heaven. Fo-hi is thought to be the same with Noah.

The emperor Yau is, by some historians, thought to have sourished more than two thousand two hundred years before Christ, though by others he is said to have been contemporary with Joshua, which was but between sourteen and sisteen hundred years before the Christian æra, because it is recorded that in his reign the sun did not set for ten days, which event is supposed to be the same with that mentioned in the book of Joshua, when the sun and moon stood still for a whole day. Hence it will appear, that though the Chinese empire cannot, with any degree of certainty, be dated higher than a few generations beyond the reign of Yau, yet it may boast of a very high degree of antiquity.

The materials for Chinese history are extremely ample: the grand annals of the empire are said to be comprehended in not less than six or seven hundred volumes, and consist of pieces that have been composed by a department of the government of China, established and maintained expressly for the purpose of transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, as well as the biographical memoirs of its sovereigns. With this department have been deposited and arranged, according to the order of time, all the sacts which concern the monarchy from the earliest periods, and with great precautions, to guard against illusion or partiality.

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These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family * has only been published after its extinction, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither sear nor stattery might adulterate the truth. It is even afferted that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile and death, rather than disguise the desects and vices of the sovereign.

^{*} All the Chinese emperors, abstracting from those who are said to have reigned in the sabulous times, are comprehended in twenty-two dynastics or sovereignties, which continued till the year 1644, when they were expelled from the government by the Tartars.

The most interesting particulars of the Chinese history relate to the incursions of the Tartars, who at last conquered the whole empire, and who still continue to hold the sovereignty; though by transferring the seat of empire to Peking, and by adopting the Chinese language, manners, and customs, Tartary seems rather to be incorporated with China, than the conqueror of it.

These incursions began very early, even in the time of Shun, the immediate successor of Yau above mentioned, when the Tartars were repulsed and driven back into their own territories. From time to time, however, they continued their invasions, and the northern provinces of China were often ravaged by the Tartars in their neighbourhood.

About the year before Christ 213, Chi-boang-ti having fubdued all the princes of the different provinces, became fole emperor of China, with the possession of unlimited powers. He divided the whole empire into thirty-fix provinces; and finding the northern part of his dominions greatly harraffed by the invasions of the neighbouring barbarians, he fent a formidable army against them, which drove them far beyond the boundaries of China: and to prevent their return he built the famous stone-wall which feparates China from Tartary. This wall is fifteen hundred miles long, above twenty-feet high, and fufficiently broad for fix horsemen to travel abreast without the flightest inconvenience.* After this, being elated with his own exploits, he formed a defign of making posterity believe that he himself had been the first Chinese emperor that ever sat on the throne; for this purpose he ordered all the historical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the antient government, to be burned, that they might not be employed by the learned to repel his authority, and the changes which he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. He is even faid, on this occasion,

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^{*} Although this wall has stood two thousand years, yet it is almost entire, having been built of bricks, and such a kind of cement as seem to bid defiance to the ravages of time: the wall is strengthened with towers and other sortifications, and was, before the conquest of China by the Tartars, garrisoned with a million of soldiers.

to have caused four hundred of the literati to be burnt to-

gether with their books. 11-

What effect the great wall had for some considerable time in preventing the invalions of the Tartars, we are not informed; but in the tenth century of the Christian æra the Kitan, a people of eastern Tartary, who lived in the north and north-east of China, made incursions into the country, Subdued a part of the empire, and established a government of their own in 916. Thirty years after this, Mingt-fong, the emperor of China, was attacked by his brother-in-law, Sheking-tang, and was by him deprived of his crown and life. This was accomplished by means of an army of fifty thousand men, furnished by the Kitan: Fi-ti, the fon, and lawful fucceffor of Mingt-fong, being unable to refift the usurper, fled to the city Ghey-chew, where, shutting himself up with his family and treasures, he fet fire to the palace, and was burnt to ashes.

On the death of Fi-ti, Sheking-tang affumed the title of emperor, under the name of Kaut-fu. But the Kitan general refused to acknowledge him, except on the condition of his yielding up to the Tartars fixteen cities in the province of Pecheli, which is the most northern province of Chinabefides a yearly prefent of three hundred thousand pieces of niche s af therme wheeland betrayed as father into the i

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This fubmission served only to inflame the avarice of the Kitan, and in the year 959 they invaded the empire afresh. Ti-vang, the emperor, opposed them with a formidable army; but through the treachery of his general, Lyew-chiyween, he was taken prisoner, and, to obtain his liberty, accepted of a small principality, resigning his empire to the treacherous general, who changed his name to Kaut-fu. The Tartars, in the mean time, ravaged the northern provinces without opposition, and then marched into the fouthern. But being opposed by some bodies of Chinese troops, they retired with their booty into Tartary.

The fuccessors of Kaut-fu opposed the barbarians ineffectually till the year 978, when they became so strong, as to lay fiege to a confiderable city, from which they were driven by the following firstagem : Tay-tfong, the emperor, detached against them, in the night, three hundred foldiers, Vol. II. each

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each carrying a light in his hand, with orders to approach the camp as nearly as possible. The barbarians imagining, by the number of lights, that the whole Chinese army was at hand, immediately fled, and falling into the ambuscades laid for them, were almost all cut to pieces.

In the year 999, and again in 1035, the Kitan attacked the empire, and laid it under heavy contributions; after which we hear little more of them till the year 1117, when their ravages became fo intolerable, that Whey-tfong, the emperor, in order to put a stop to them, called in the affistance of the Eastern Tartars to destroy the kingdom of Kitan, which they effectually accomplished. This, however, proved of no advantage to the Chinese; for the Tartar general, elated with his conquest, gave the name of Kin to his new dominion, affumed the imperial title, and began to think of aggrandizing his empire. For this purpose he invaded and made himself master of the greater part of the provinces of Pecheli and hanfi; when, after several conferences between the Tantar general and Whey-tlong, the latter was thrown into prison, where he ended his days in 1126, having nominated his eldeft fon, Kin-tfeng, to fucceed him. W to somirons an almon than any

Kin-tsong began his reign with putting to death fix minifters of flate, who had betrayed his father into the hands of the Kin-Tartars. The barbarians, in the mean time, purfued their conquests, croffed the Whang-ho, or Yellew River, and marching directly towards the imperial city, took and plundered it, at the fame time feizing the emperor and his confort, they carried them away captives. The crown devolved on Kau-tfong, the ninth fon of Whey tfong, who fixed his court at Nanking. He made feveral fruitless efforts to recover some of his provinces from the Kin. Iltiong, the Kin monarch, in the mean time, endeavoured to gain the esteem of his Chinese subjects, by paying a great regard to their learning and learned men. He advanced to Nanking, from whence Kau tlong had retired, and took it; but receiving advice that Yo-fi, general of the Song, or Southern Chinese, was approaching to the relief of the city, he set fire to the palace, and retired northward. However, Yo si arrived time enough to fall upon their rear-guard, which tro religin

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which fuffered fo much, that, from this time, the Kin never dared to cross the river Kyang. But in 1163 the king approached the mouth of that river, and commanded his troops, on the pain of death, to cross it, which they refused, rebelled against their fovereign, and killed him in the beginning of the tumult, and then retired.

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After this nothing remarkable occurs in the Chinese hiftory till the year 1210, when the chief of the western Tartars, Moguls, or Mungls quarrelled with Yong-tfi, emperor of the Kin. In 1212 the Mogul generals forced the great wall to the north of Shanfi, made incursions as far as Peking, the capital of the Kin empire, and defeated an army of three hundred thousand Kin. The war was continued, and several battles fought in the next year, in one of which the ground was firewed with dead bodies for upwards of four leagues.

The same year Yong-th was slain, and Sun, a prince of the blood, succeeded him. After this the Moguls attacked and laid waste the provinces of Shansi, Honan, Pecheli, and Shantong; and in 1215 Jeng-biz-kban, their general, befieged and took the city of Peking; he afterwards returned to pursue his conquests in the west of Asia, where he staid feven years, during which his general, with the affiftance of the Song emperor, made great progress in China against the

emperor of the Kin.

In 1226 Oktay, fon to Jeng-hiz-khan, marched into Honan, befieged the capital of the Kin empire, took feveral cities, cut to pieces an army of thirty thousand men, but was, notwithstanding, obliged to retire into Shansi. About this time Jeng-hiz-khan died; but the war was carried on with various fuccess by his two sons, Oktay and Toley, who took more than fixty important posts in the province of Shanfi. Toley demanded of the Song a paffage for his army through the country of Han-chong-fu, which being refused, he forced the passages, and put to the sword the inhabitants of two cities, in the district of Hang-chong-fu. And having cut down rocks to fill up deep abyffes, and made roads through places almost inaccessible, he besieged the city itself, the miserable inhabitants of which fled to the K 2

mountains on his approach, where more than a hundred

thousand of them perished.

In January 1232, Oktay, passing the Whang-ho, encamped in the diffrict of Kay-fong-fu, the capital of the Kin empire, and fent his general, Suputay, to befiege the city. At that time the place was thirty miles in circumference, but having only forty thousand foldiers to defend it, as many more, befides twenty thousand peasants, were ordered into the city, while the emperor published an affecting declaration, animating the people to defend it to the last extremity. Although the Moguls took fome confiderable posts, yet, in other instances, they were opposed with such intrepidity and valour, that they were obliged to retire. Kyang-shin, governor of Loyang, had only four thousand foldiers under him, while his enemies were thirty thousand firong. He placed his worst foldiers on the walls, putting himfelf at the head of four hundred brave men, whom he ordered to go naked, and whom he led to all dangerous attacks. He invented engines to cast large stones of enormous weight. When their arrows failed, he cut those shot by the enemy into four pieces, pointed them with bits of brafs coin, and discharged them from wooden tubes, with as much force as bullets are from a musket. In this manner he harraffed the Moguls for three months, and obliged them, notwithstanding their numbers, to abandon their enterprize.

Oktay refolved to return to Tartary, but Suputay pushed on the siege of the capital with renewed vigour. For sixteen days and nights he continued his attacks without intermission, which seemed only to inspire the besieged with fresh courage: an incredible number of men perished on both sides; at length Suputay, finding that he could not take the city, withdrew his army. Soon after, the plague broke out in Kay-song-su, and raged with such violence, that, in sifty days, more than a million of persons perished by it.

In a fhort time the war was again renewed; the capital of the Kin empire was delivered up by treachery to Suputay, who put all the males of the imperial race to the fword, while he spared, by command of Oktay, the inhabitants, when half to confine only free well the at the

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who are faid to have amounted to nearly a million and a half of families. The monarch, after this difafter, retired to Juning-fu, a city in the fouthern part of Honan, attended only by four hundred perfons. Here they were again be-fieged by the Moguls, and reduced to the extremity of living three months on human flesh, killing the old and feeble, as well as many prisoners, for food. This being known to the Moguls they attacked them, but were repulsed, though at the expence of all the best Kin officers; upon which the emperor resigned his crown to Cheng-lin, a prince of the blood.

While the ceremony of investing the new emperor was performing, the Moguls broke into the city, slew the late emperor and his successor; and thus, in the year 1234, an end was put to the dominion of the Kin Tartars in China.

(To be concluded in the next number.)

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

On Taste, Literature, and the Art of Composition.

CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO

LETTER VIII.

My dear George,

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Promifed in my last letter to introduce to your acquaint ance that figure of rhetoric which is the most fertile fource of beauty in oratory and poetry, the metaphor. We introduce this figure, indeed, into every kind of writing; or rather, it infinuates itself into every composition: and even the most common and trifling conversation is tinctured with it. Metaphors thus grow upon us, without our intending to use them; every thing we read is full of them. I am using metaphorical language at this moment, for the words instantated, tinctured, grows upon, are taken from some properties of external objects, and applied to the mind.

A metaphor is always founded on the resemblance one thing has to another. Yet we must carefully distinguish between a metaphor and a simile; in the former the nature

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of one thing is used to denote another, in the latter two hings are only brought together in comparison. Thus if I ay, "An able minister is to the state, what a pillar is to a building," I make use of a simile; but if I say, "An able minister is the pillar of the state," it becomes then a metaphor. Sometimes, indeed, we call that metaphorical language where there is no direct resemblance, as, "to bring

down his grey hairs with forrow to the grave."

To give a fair example of this figure, I shall felect a fine metaphor from Lord Bolinbroke's Remarks on the History of England. He is speaking of the conduct of the unfortunate Charles to his last parliament. " In a word, about a month after they were affembled he diffolved them, and no fooner did he diffolve them than he repented; but he repented too late of his rafhness. Well might he repent, for the veffel was now full, and this last drop made the waters of bitternels overflow." Here we have a very fine and great refemblance between the veffel being full to the brim, and the people exceedingly inflamed; and as the fmalleft drop makes the one run over, fo this new circumstance caused a flood of resentment to overspread the whole nation. Before we proceed to the rules proper to be observed with respect to metaphors, it is necessary to take notice, that when happily introduced, as in the prefent instance, a metaphor forms generally a spirited and dignified conclusion.

Metaphors represent things in the strongest and clearest manner, and therefore make a more lasting impression upon the mind than simple language. It may be further observed, how much better they are than comparisons and similes, as will evidently appear, if we turn the example just now given into a comparison, "like a full vessel," &c.

By this convertion it becomes flat and languid.

I shall now briefly mention some of those rules which sught to be observed in the tise of metaphorical language.

Ift. Metaphors ought not to be too many, too gay, or too elevated; by bringing too many of them into one fentence we render it obscure, instead of more perspicuous. If they are too gay, they probably may not suit the subject. Young authors are very apt to fall into this mistake; they commonly think that composition the best that is crouded

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with shining metaphors; but we should remember that they are only the dress of the thoughts, and as the dress ought always to be suited to the station of the person who wears it, so language should be suited to the nature of the subject and the sentiment. We expect different language in argument and description, in the first clearness only, in the other ornament too. When a man wears the dress of a person above his rank he is always accounted a vain sop: so when mean sentiments are clothed in a pompous style, they only serve to make them more ridiculous. We have an example of this in Dr. Smollet's history, concerning the passing of a bill for preventing clandestine marriages. "At length it floated through both houses, on the tide of a great majority, and passed safe into the port of royal approbation."

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they ouded with 2dly. They should not be taken from objects which are mean, disgusting, or vulgar. These inevitably debase a subject instead of exalting it. So Cicero blames some orators of his time for calling his sellow citizens "stercus curiæ." Tillotson is sometimes guilty of this, when he speaks of "thrusting religion," "driving a strict bargain with God." And, speaking of the last judgment, he talks of the "heavens cracking about our ears." See his sermon preached before Queen Ann, when Princess of Denmark. So Shakespear alludes to a dungbill, in his Henry the Fifth, when describing the death of those who sell in France, sighting bravely in desence of their country. Such another is introduced into one of the execrable versions of the Psalms, which have been "done into English verse."

And Sis'ra which at Endor fell,
As dung to fat the ground."

Mr. Burke, though a writer of incomparable fancy, is very faulty in this respect.

3dly. Metaphors ought not to be "far fetched," as it is fometimes, though not elegantly, termed; in other words, they should be clear, easy, and natural. This circumstance has not escaped the notice of Cicero, in his book De Oratore, who says, they ought naturally to rife from the subject. In opposition to this Cowley is always searching where he can

find

find the least resemblance; he frequently uses metaphors where the reader cannot trace the fmallest resemblance or connection; these stop the reader's train of thought by their perplexity, instead of throwing light on what was obscure. Thus when a common reader meets fuch a passage as this; "When the radical idea branches out into parallel ramifications, how can a confecutive feries be formed of fenfes in their nature collateral," he knows not what to think; he pauses, and is perplexed, but not instructed. You will, perhaps, think I have selected this example to show what perplexed figures may be, or that it is taken from an author 1emarkably dull, neither of which is the case; you will find it in Dr. Johnson's preface to his Dictionary of the English Language. The words "as it were," introduced as an apology, always fignify fome blemish. Dr. Young is an author, many of whose metaphors are new, striking, and admirably conducted, and yet he is very often faulty in this respect. Mr. Addison, on the contrary, excels in his metaphors; they feem always to arife naturally and unfought, from the very feries of thought in which the fubject engages Thomson is certainly an author of great merit, yet the metaphors in his Seasons are often forced, and what some call unideal: fuch as, "Showery radiance, breezy coolnefs, moving foftness, refreshing breaths, dewy light, lucid coolness. &c."

4thly. We should never confound the figurative and literal sense; as when Penelope, in the Odyssey, complains that her son had left her without taking leave.

"Now from my fond embrace by tempests torn, Our other column of the state is born; Nor took a kind adieu, nor fought confent," &c.

First Telemachus, in these lines, is made a column, and that with propriety; but that column is blamed for not bidding farewel and saluting, which changes the column again into a person.

5thly. Metaphors should not be mixed or confounded together. Thus Shakespear speaks of taking "arms against a fea of troubles," and of "war fnarling at the very picked bone fel fay

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of majesty," "charms dissolve apace," &c. Mr. Addison himself has fallen into this mistake. In his letter from Italy he says,

"I bridle in my struggling Muse in vain,
That longs to launch into a bolder strain."

Here the first line is proper enough; but when the Muse is changed from a horse to a ship, it becomes improper. It has, therefore, been given as a rule to be observed by orators, they ought to sigure to themselves the metaphors they employ as if painted before them, and observe whether any thing would appear improper or ridiculous, if the whole was drawn by the pencil of an artist.

6thly. They ought not to be crouded or heaped one upon another. Horace is guilty of this, in telling the occasions that hindered Pollio from narrating the history of the civil war, where he joins three metaphors, lib. II. ode 1.

"Motum ex Metello consule civicum
Bellique causas, et vitia et modos,
Ludumque fortunæ, gravesque
Principum amicitias et arma
Nondum expiatis uncta cruoribus
Periculosæ plenum opus aleæ
Tractas: et inced s per ignes
Suppositos cineri doloso."

"Of warm contentions, wrathful jars,
The growing feeds of civil wars;
Of double fortune's cruel games,
The specious means, the private aims,
And fatal friendships of the guilty great,
Alas! how fatal to the Roman state.

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Of mighty legions late subdued,
And arms with Latian blood embru'd;
Yet unatoned (a labour vast,
Doubtful the dice, and dire the cast)
You treat adventurous, and incautious tread
On fires with faithless embers overspread."

7thly. They should not be too far pursued. Cowley is often faulty in this respect. Shaftsbury, too, out of a desire of parade, frequently pursues his metaphors too far; he is

fo fond of embellishing his style with them, that when he has once found one to please him, he can never think of parting with it. You will find a striking instance of this in his Advice to an Author, and another in his Rhapfody. You may also see an example of this when he is speaking of old age, and another when speaking of eternity. This author, indeed, from his strained metaphors, and his inversions of language, is less understood than if he had written in Greek or Latin. When a metaphor is purfued to any confiderable length, it becomes an allegory; and as it requires the utmost care and refinement to manage this figure, it frequently mifcarries and obscures the subject. The antients generally fucceeded in allegories better than the moderns. Had Spencer fpent less time in fairy scenes, and more on real life, he would have excelled in this figure. We have a fine allegory in Prior's Henry and Emma, where he fays,

"Did I but purpose to embark with thee,
On the smooth surface of a summer sea,
While gentle Zephyrs play with prosperous gales,
And Fortune's favour fills the swelling sails?
But would for sake the ship and make the shore,
When the winds whistle and the tempests roar?
No, Henry, no, one sacred oath has tied
Our lives, one destiny our fate shall guide,
Nor wild nor deep our common way divide."

We have an exceeding fine one in the eightieth psalm: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it; thou preparedst room for it, and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars," &c. The figure is here most natural, and admirably supported. Had the Psalmist sirst told us that wicked men persecuted the people of God, and afterwards used the figure of the vine, it must have been consused; but here every circumstance is most natural and figurative. The meaning must, in an allegory, neither be too open to our view, nor too far removed. In the former case it ceases to be an allegory, in the latter it stops the career of the reader's imagination to seek out the secret meaning.

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VISITS TO THE BOTANICAL GARDEN.

THIRD DAY.

(Continued from page 33.)

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ASSEL had just brought us back to the gate: we thanked him heartily, and left him. "Now," faid Gustavus immediately, "tell me why Cassel is so melancholy? Is he always fo? Is it among these filent animals that he has contracted fuch a cold and gloomy air?" "My dear Gustavus, it is his sensibility which renders him sad. The lofs of the lion grieved him much. He fed these animals, and by loving them taught them to love him. He is not infensible to their careffes. If your mamma's paroquet was to die, would not she be very forry?" "O yes! that the would." "You see, then, that it is possible to be aftached to animals, and to be very fensible to their lofs; and this is the case with this man. Add to this, that he has lately met with a very difagreeable little accident, and one very likely to put him out of humour. You saw the magot, an ape of a difagreeable figure, and whose manners are ftill more difagreeable. This malicious animal, with one of his paws, made a deep fcratch on the nofe of his keeper, who could very well have dispensed with this mark of affection. The wound was not dangerous, but it has been painful; and I judged that it is not yet healed." "Oho! now I know why Cassel wears a black patch upon his nose. I pity him fincerely; he d d not deserve such treatment. It I had been in his place I should have been still more out of humour: I would have revenged myself on the ape." "What would you have gained by that? You would have rendered him fill more mischievous, and the next time you would not have come off fo cheaply."

We were now walking through the alleys of the garden. Gustavus asked me a thousand questions about the Botanical Garden, and I answered him in the best manner I was able. "This menagerie," faid I to him, "is formed from the ruins of that kept under the antient government at Verfailles. Some years ago it was transferred to the Botanical

Garden,

Garden, to serve for the public instruction; and for the purpose of rendering the spectacle a little more brilliant, it was peopled with all the beasts exhibited at Paris. Thus the bear, who danced in the street to the sound of the slagelet, was sent for to be confined in a den grated with iron bars. Its last situation was the worst of all. The monkey that gamboled at the fair, or rode gravely through Paris seated on the bunch of a dromedary; the panther that travelled from town to town to attract the notice of the curious; all were dragged to the national menagerie. Citizen Cassel possessed some rare animals; they were demanded of him; and, to render him less sensible to the loss of his property, he was made keeper of the whole collection."

Was that lion which is just dead one of those animals that travelled the streets? You promised to tell me his history, and I am impatient to hear it. How can they approach a living lion, and transport it from one country to another, and feed it?" "I will satisfy your impatience directly. Let us sit down on this bench. But, see! Citizen Toscan, of the Botanical Garden, is sitting there. Let us beg him to give us the account of the lion of the menagerie; no one can do it with so much exactness. I shall gain as

much information as you in liftening to him."

We approached the naturalist; he readily complied with our request. I seated myself at his right hand, Gustavus placed himself at his lest, and Toscan thus began his nar-

ration.

The lion is the most terrible and the most powerful of all animals; but it is in the history of his species that you must seek what the lion of the menagerie has lost by his captivity, or what he has acquired by the influence of the society and the benefits of man. Born in the burning climate of Africa, the lion surpasses all other beasts in intrepidity. An enormous head, covered with long waving hair of a tawny colour; a large forehead, which in anger is surrowed with deep wrinkles; lively and piercing eyes, shaded with thick eye-brows; a body equally solid and nervous, the model of strength joined with activity; a mane which covers all the front parts, and which grows continually longer as the animal increases in age; a supple and vigorous tail,

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tail, which, in its hasty movements, strikes down and bruises the enemy which it lashes; thick and muscular legs; feet armed with claws raised and bending back, which are only stretched out against the prey that they seize; these are the characteristics which distinguish the outward appearance of the lion from that of all other quadrupeds. His greatest size is about eight feet in length and four feet in height; but though smaller than the elephant, the hippopotamus, the rhinoceros, or the bull, he is so well shaped and proportioned, that it is sufficient to see this animal to judge him capable of attacking with courage, and conquering those

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"The lioness is smaller every way; she has no mane; her features less marked, or rather softened, indicate her nature also gentler. Her strength is in maternal affection. When the has young ones the forgets all danger. She falls indifferently upon men or beafts, whose approach she dreads, for her whelps; and when an attempt is made to deprive her of them, neither the number of the aggressors, nor the greatness of the danger can intimidate her; she defends them to the last extremity. But the hunters seldom risk depriving her of them by open force; it is more common to profit by the time when the is absent hunting for the food of her whelps. If the lioness returns in time to pursue and overtake the ravishers, they throw her one of her young, and, whilft the carries it to her den, they lose not a moment in escaping with the others. New born lions are very fmall; they continue growing at least three or four years, and it is prefumed that the duration of their life is about twenty-five. Buffon has allowed too much influence to phyfical causes over the moral qualities of animals. According to him, the fierce appetites of the lion are only the effect of the heat of the fun, which exalts the qualities of plants as well as those of animals. Yet the fame foil which produces spices is also covered with the most refreshing fruits; and those burning climates where so many savage beafts take their birth, are also inhabited by the innocent and timid antelope, who only asks of the earth a little grass for its food, and of its shabitants only peace and tranquillity to live happily.

"The lions of Mount Atlas, whose summit is frequently Vol. II.

covered with fnow, have not degenerated in breathing a more temperate air; they are neither less daring nor less courageous than those of the plains and neighbourhood of Zaara. Besides, they do not much frequent this desert, which is covered with sand, and does not afford them food.

"All animals are the prey of the lion, he himself is the prey of none. He often attacks alone a whole caravan of travellers. Threats, cries, the noise of fire-arms, his wounds, and the blood which flows from them, irritate, but do not frighten him. The lion, however, is not cruel: he attacks and kills only from necessity. As foon as he is fatiated he is at full peace. His different affections are known by the motions of his tail. When it is still he is peaceful and gentle, his head is bent downwards, his eye is tranquil, his countenance is calm, all his features are at reft. When he is enraged, on the contrary, he lashes his sides with his tail, he beats the ground, he shakes his mane, moves the skin of his face, agitates his large eyc-brows, shows his threatening teeth, and puts forth his tongue armed with hard points. Strength and generofity are two qualities almost inseparable in man as well as in beafts. The anger of the lion is noble and generous. With impetuous appetites, nature has given him a disposition susceptible of gentle and sociable modifications, If he is irritated by bad treatment, he is grateful for benefits. From amongst a croud of equally touching traits, I will quote to you that of the lioness of Fort St. Louis, which Defmarchais relates in his Voyage to Guinea.

"The French of Fort St. Louis had a beautiful lionels, which they kept chained to fend to France. This animal was attacked with a violent complaint in the jaw, and, being unable to eat, was foon reduced to extremity. The people of the fort, despairing of her recovery, took off her chain, and threw her body into a neighbouring field. The lioness was in this condition when a Frenchman, named Compagnon, perceived her, as he was returning from hunting. Her eyes were already closed, and her open three filled with ants. Compagnon took pity on the poor animal, and, thinking he discovered some remains of life, he washed her throat with water, and made her swallow, little milk. This simple remedy produced a surprising of

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fect. The lioness was carried back to the fort, where so much care was taken of her, that by degrees, she recovered. But remembering to whom she was indebted for so great a service, she conceived such an affection for her benefactor, that she would take nothing from any hand but his; and when she was entirely cured, she followed him about the island with a cord round her neck, like the most familiar dog.

LIVES OF CELEBRATED CHILDREN.

No. VI.

JOHN PHILIP BARATIER.

THIS wonderful youth, who was just exhibited by Providence upon the stage of life, to shew the extenfive powers of the human mind, and then disappeared, as if. fitted for a higher fphere, was born in 1721, at Schwobach, near Nuremburg, in the Margravate of Brandenburgh Anspach. His father was minister of the French church at Schwobach, having fled from France on account of his being a protestant, at the time of the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He was a man of great piety and learning, and undertook the education of his fon himself, who made so great a progress under his instructions, that, at the age of tive years, he is faid to have understood the Greek, Latin, German, and French languages. His father, furprized and delighted with his uncommon genius, next proceeded to teach him Hebrew, and in less than a year he was able to read the historical books of the Bible in that tongue. At the age of nine years he could translate any part of the Hebrew scriptures into Latin, and even re-translate those versions into Hebrew, an attainment which is almost incredible. At the same age he could repeat the Hebrew Pfalter by rote, without having taken any other pains to commit it to memory than just reading it through with his father. By the time he had reached his tenth year, our young scholar had drawn up a Hebrew lexicon, of uncommon

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and difficult words, to which were added many curious remarks. He was now very defirous of reading the rabbins; and prevailed with his father to purchase for him the great rabbinical bible, published at Amsterdam, in 1728, 4 vols. folio. This work he read with great accuracy and attention, and drew up an account of it, which was published in the 26th volume of the Bibliotheque Germanique. In 1731, he was matriculated in the University of Altdorf. In his eleventh year he published the Travels of Rabbi Benjamin, of Tudela, translated from the Hebrew into French, with curious notes and differtations. The Margrave of Anspach, in 1734, gave him a pension of fifty florins a year, and at the same time allowed him the free use of his magnificent library.

But though Baratier principally applied himself to philological pursuits, he did not neglect the sciences. His attainments in mathematics and astronomy were considerable; and, in 1735, he actually laid before the Academy of Sciences at Berlin, a method of discovering the longitude at sea. The same year he was admitted a member of that learned body. Shortly afterwards he published a learned theological work, entituled, "Anti Artemomius," against Samuel Crellius, the socinian, who had assumed the name of Artemomius, and the subject is the text at the beginning of St. John's Gospel. The same year (1735) he accompanied his father to the university of Halle, where he was offered the degree of Master of Arts, or, as it is there term-

ed, doctor in philosophy.

The fame night he drew up fourteen theses in philosophy and the mathematics, which the next day he publicly defended in the University with so much ability, that his degree was conferred on him with unanimous applause. From thence he went to Berlin, where he was introduced to the King, who had little respect for learning. His Majesty, however, shewed him great favour, but, by way of mortifying him, one day asked him, "whether he was acquainted with the public law of the empire?" Baratier replied, that he was not; on which the King said, "Go and study it before you pretend to be learned." The young

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man, piqued at this reproof, went and applied himself to the fubject with fo much diligence, that at the end of five months he publicly maintained a thefis upon it.

He continued to add new acquisitions to his store of learning, and to increase his reputation by new performances of confiderable merit. In his nineteenth year he was bufily employed in collecting materials for a large work concerning the Ægyptian Antiquities: but his constitution naturally tender, and of course injured by too intense an application to fludy, began to give way, and his health to decline. Cough, spitting of blood, fever on the spirits, head-ache, pains in the stomach, and other complaints. feized him; and this furprizing young man expired, after languishing several months, at Halle, October 5th, 1740, in the twentieth year of his age.

Baratier was not only master of several languages, but acquainted almost with every science except that of physic, to which he had an utter aversion. His learning, though prodigiously extensive, did not cramp his mind, or four his temper. On the contrary, he inquired into the opinions of writers with a free and an independent spirit; and his difposition was lively and pleasant. He wrote with great elegance and dignity of ftyle. He had a quickness of apprehension, and a great firmness of memory, which enabled him to read with incredible rapidity, and at the fame time to retain what he had read. He read over, in one winter, twenty large folio volumes; and the catalogue of the books which he had borrowed, comprized forty-one quarto pages. closely written, and the titles abridged.

In common life he had some peculiarities, but no vices. He could neither bear music nor play. He indulged in no fort of amusement; nor was he fond of wine. He ate little flesh, and lived almost entirely upon milk, tea, bread, fruits and fweetmeats. His moral character was irreproachable:

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On the Subject for No. 8, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

To shew, by argument and example, the happiness of the middle station of life; and that it is true wisdom to pursue in all things what has been termed the golden mean."

By Master JOSEPH DENNISON, aged 15,

Est modus in rebus: sunt certi denique fines;
Quos ultra citraque, nequit consistere rectum."

THE fituation in which man is placed in this world, is that of a traveller wandering to a very distant country: life is the scene of his journey, and happiness is the end to which he directs his steps. On a way, then, of so much diversity, and in the pursuit of so important a bleffing, it is no wonder mankind differ so materially in their endeavours to obtain it. It is, indeed, so near to every man's heart, that each forms his own plans, and consults his own inclinations, for the accomplishment of his wishes. Hence we see the covetous man seek happiness in the way of wealth, the ambitious man in power, and the humble man in contentment, or a satisfied medium; and it will be the business of this essay to prove which of these is the best and nearest way to that inestimable blessing.

The most common desire among mankind, is that of obtaining wealth: a desire which, perhaps, originated from the fear which acts with such horror on the human mind, that of not having wherewith to satisfy the calls of hunger. But it often happens that in slying from one extreme, man experiences a greater evil in the opposite. Excess of wealth is not always attended with moderate desires, but rather, on the contrary, these latter increase with our possessions. Alexander the Great, when he had conquered the world, still sighed to add some new conquest to his boundless dominions. Thus, then, since the higher we climb, the further we find ourselves from the pinnacle of our desires; a middle station is, in this point of view at least, as acceptable as a lostier one: and it will be found to be more so, when we consider that the more exalted our situation is, the

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more liable we are to be shaken by the storms and whirlwinds which continually threaten the seats of magnificence and greatness.

> "Sæpiùs ventis agitatur ingens Pinus, et celsæ graviore casu Decidunt turres: feriuntque summos Fulmina montes."

HOR.

The tallest pine that crowns the grove,
The driving tempests of rest move:
High tow'rs but fall with greater shocks,
And thunders strike the highest rocks.

But it is not only in these particulars that the danger of wealth consists. It is apt to make men forget their duty, and thus render people of rectitude of conduct and good principles slaves to the worst of passions and desires. And such are its temptations, that we are informed by our Saviour, that nothing is more difficult than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven.

Thus, then, we find that happiness does not consist altogether in wealth; not that we would by any means recommend indolent poverty, for that would put an end to the laudable pursuits of mankind, which, increasing through so many ages, have cast so bright a lustre on the civilized part of the world, and have added so many conveniences to life. But we would observe, that as poverty is to be dreaded on account of its wants, so is affluence on account of its enjoyments. A medium is therefore adviseable to be chosen, where we shall neither feel the pains of want, nor the qualms of fatiety; and as poverty and wealth have each their comforts, where we shall receive a relish from the one, for the enjoyment of the other.

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Thus far have we proceeded by comparison to prove the happiness of a middle station; but when we turn and examine it separately, its comforts will be more conspicuous. Above the reach of want we perceive the man who is blessed with mediocrity, sensible of the goodness of Providence, and grateful for its kindness. He is, however, near enough to perceive the diffress of poverty, and learns to compassionate its missortunes. He perceives the happiness

of his station, and is contented. We perceive him, too, neither influenced by the jealousies, nor inflamed by the ambition of wealth. He needs no incentives to his appetite, no lullabies to sooth his slumbers. Health, and the exercise of his business, supplies the former, and "mens sibiconscia recti" the latter. He need not sly to the noise of dissipation for happiness, as it lies within his own breast. The remembrance of his pleasures casts no damp on his spirits, but his life flows on in a clear and uninterrupted stream of domestic biss.

Such, after a fair and candid examination, do we find the comforts of the middle stations of life: the happiness of which, if mankind were sufficiently convinced of it, would undoubtedly be the object of their warmest defires, and, like the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus, they would leave with regret a happy medium, although for the splendour

and magnificence of a crown.

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SECOND PRIZE ESSAY

By Miss SARAH D. METCALF, AGED 15.

"Est modus in rebus: sunt certi denique fines; Quos ultra, citraque nequit consistere rectum."

As rue happiness can only be the result of conscious rectitude, those stations of life may be considered as yielding the greatest portion, which appear most favourable to the growth of virtue and the cultivation of genius; and when we reslect on the temptations and disadvantages to which both extreme poverty exposes its object, and great riches their possessor, we must acknowledge the wisdom of Agur's petition, and concur in preferring mediocrity. To avoid the abuse of riches, and discharge those important duties they indispensably impose, of comforting the poor and needy, protecting the fatherless and widow, and preferving humility, require a heart impressed by religion, and a mind supported by philosophy, blessings which the higher classes of life seldom afford; for riches and power are of themselves great temptations, and when we add how often

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their owners are furrounded by fycophants, whose primary concern is their own interest, to which truth and honour often fall a facrifice, we must confess a situation so exposed to treachery cannot be genial to the culture of virtue or the possession of happiness. We cannot have a more convincing example, to prove how feductive are riches and power from the paths of rectitude, than that of Solomon, who, though endued with all earthly wildom, neglected his Creator, and worthipped inanimate gods; and probably had Caligula, Nero, Cambyfes, &c. occupied middle ftations, instead of difgracing humanity, they might have been its ornaments. Pyrthus was the victim of ambition, Alexander of arrogance. Cræsus proved the fallacy of riches, and the wisdom of Solon's remark. Even if the paths of virtue are fleadily maintained, an exalted flation is not enviable, fince even the justice of an Aristides was insufficient to fecure him from the shafts of envy. The opposite station, extreme poverty, exhibits a still more unpromising picture of fublunary happiness; for what comforts can a station, exposed to the infolence and oppression of superiors, and barely yielding nature's requifites, afford? The poor are frequently characterized by vice, but their unfortunate fituation arms them with no fhield against temptation, and it often neither yields good precept nor example. Thus from the contemplation of the miseries of poverty and the seduction of riches, we may infer the happiness of the middle station, in which there are neither riches to allure to profligacy, or poverty to dishonesty, but a happy independence without superfluity. Extremes, in every pursuit, are to be avoided, as being incompatible with happiness, and sometimes finking virtues into vices: thus excessive generolity becomes prodigality, and too much care becomes parfimony. In fact, the golden mean feems preferable in every attainment and pursuit but as the test of merit.

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The following, though not strictly within the limits of our competition, we believe most of our readers will agree is well deserving of publication.

RERTIREMENT, OR THE GOLDEN MEAN.

By MASTER J. H. L. HUNT, AGED 15. Late of Christ's Hospital, London.

"Est modus in rebus; sunt certi denique fines; Quos, ultra citraque nequit consistere rectum."

HOR.

"Auream quisquis mediocritatem Diligit, tutus caret obsoleti Sordibus tecti; caret invidenda Sobrius aula."

ID. OD. X. LIB. 1.

RETIREMENT, foother of the woe-worn breaft,
By all the good, and all the great careft;
Thy shady groves, thy fields of lively green,
Where Contemplation bends her brow serene;
Thy rippling streams that silver o'er the plain,
The mild, the peaceful pleasures of thy reign,
Invite the song; be present at my lay,
And let me chant along thy velvet way.

How bleft the mortal, far from gorgeous Care, The tort'ring badge that Vice and Envy wear! Far from the rank that elevates mankind, 'To shew their eyes the good they left behind; As from the Alps, the trav'ller, tott'ring flow, Bends o'er his native fields that smile below; And, while the storm oft pauses o'er the plain, Asks back his cottage and his crook in vain! He cares not where Ambition's maniacs rave, No royal statt'rer, and no titled slave; But spurns behind him, as to light he springs, The pomp of courtiers, and the pride of kings!

Nor finks his manly foul to ruder joys, That love the vulgar, Vanity and Noise. Pleasures like these, that bubble and are dead, Fly from his peaceful walks and placid head. That noble breast, where Sense and Honour reign, Disgrace and Folly toil to wound in vain. Thus the soft breeze, like some forgotten dream, Sighs o'er the oil that smooths the russed stream; And slits unheeded o'er the watry glass, Nor breathes impression on its chrystal face.

This is the man, this, this creation's Lord,
Whom all must envy, yet whom all applaud!
This is the man, "who," crouds admiring cry,
"Has learnt to live, and trembles not to die!
Who wisely steer'd, where no loud tempests roar,
No rocks tremendous threaten from the shore;
But kept life's middle stream; whose waters past,
Death frowns no more, and Heav'n is man's at last!"

Ye purpled wretches, crown'd with Vice and Shame: Wretches, whose all is Vanity and name! Ye sceptred Neros, pageants of an hour, Whose God is Mammon, and whose idol, Pow'r! Say, can your bosoms smooth Contentment know, With Peace be gentle, or with Virtue glow? Can hot Intemp'rance cool your boiling veins, And give to Virtue Reason's trampled reins? Can wrinkled Av'rice fmooth the brow of Care, Or pois'nous Envy antidote Despair? Can mad Ambition, Pow'r's unfetter'd luft, Bid you be still, and tell you, ye are dust? Go! fearch your treasures, mark the envious glance, The hectic glow of Riot's revell'd dance; Exalt your heads, where high Ambition shrouds His arm in thunders, and his eye in clouds: And is it there Peace hides her hermit head. Woes are no more, and human wishes dead? Say, Wilmot, first at Pleasure's painted goal: Say, royal Richmond, with thy shrivell'd foul: Tell, high-brow'd Wolfey, fon of fplendid Care. Thou castle built of Vanity and Air; Say, sleeps Repose, where Conscience finds no rest? Does Blis enrapture in the guilty breaft?

While kings and nobles share the thorns of woe, Some still are scatter'd on the crowds below. See through the mob, where Vice triumphant rules, And vacant Ign'rance stares among her fools; See Discontent her murmurs fell conceal, And loud Contention threat the public weal! See Filth difgusting wallow in her mire, And Noise and Riot light eternal fire! And, ah! let Pity turn her dewy eyes, while mod ?! Where gasping Penury unfriended lies! Where wild-ey'd Hunger bows her fainting head, And Sickness swoons upon her tatter'd bed! There no mild hand uprears the drooping form, No meek Benevolence averes the form! Soft pillow'd Ease, that slumbers off the day, And haughty Grandeur turn in fcorn away! Till he, whom Fortune never call'd her own, Sinks in the filent grave, unpitied and unknown!

O let me drop from scenes so fraught with care,
Rank's gilded wrinkles, and the Pauper's tear!
O let me drop, Retirement, to thy shades,
Thy bubbling riv'lets, and thy silent glades;
Thy fields, where Chearfulness disports the day,
Thy groves, where pensive Silence loves to stray;
Thy level lawns, each pasture and each plain,
And all the beauties of thy woodland reign!

With these, Sufficiency, Content, and Health, I scorn alike Nobility and Wealth:
Pomp and Parade, like vengeful Furies, sly,
And up no heights ambitious list mine eye.
Religion only, as it only shou'd,
Will make me noble, when it makes me good:
Rich in her smiles, I glory to be man,
And life's no more, a shadow and a span!

How sweet to rise, when morn's resulgent hand Waves o'er the bright'ning sky her magic wand; How sweet to rise, with manly Temp'rance strong, And hear the lark begin his quaver'd song;

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To view Creation smiling as she glows,
And see fresh Nature waken from repose!
Boast ye, ye sons of Opulence and Pow'r,
Boast ye, midst all your treasures, such an hour?
Can pallid Sloth desert her downy rest,
Or panting Asthma lift th' unwieldy breast?
Can nightly Revel spring to hail the sky,
Or Riot wake with Animation's eye?

And, ah! when ev'ning's " gradual, dufky veil," Speeds its dark texture on the foften'd gale; How lov'd you arbour, where the honied flow'rs Bloom on the air, and fcent the floating hours! There, when bright Titan finks behind the hill. And his last colours paint the village rill; How joys the eye, attentive to the fkies, no sol at final To flep down flowly, as he flowly dies; While streams of splendor roll along the west, And mark the limits of his purple reft! So finks the man whose conscience Heav'n approves, Whom Angels venerate, and Virtue loves. Lamenting Honour weeps upon his hearfe, And carves in gold the monumental verse; While Glory beams o'er Death's retiring gloom, And with unfading splendor crowns his tomb!

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Thus lives the man, who gains the golden mean.

He shuns alike ambitious storms and strife,
And slies the noify walks of vulgar life.

And as Creation boats her greenest birth,
Where the mild zone enclass the smiling earth,
Far from the north and all its winters drear,
And where no Indian summers scorch the year.

Thus joys his soul, thus smiles upon the day,
Where life's soft medium gilds his slow'ry way;
Where Pleasure, pure as Heav'n itself that sent,
And Solitude sit dimpled with Content;
Where Peace is Pomp, Humility a king,
And Nature boasts one unrevolving spring.

Vol. II.

Attestations.

The above estay is the unassisted production of my son, J. H. L. Hunt.

ISAAC HUNT.

This is to attest that the above poetical essay is the unaided production of my brother, J. H. L. Hunt.

ROBERT HUNT.

PRIZE TRANSLATION

Of the Fifteenth Section of the Fifth Book of Lactantius.

By MASTER JOHN MAVOR.

In his 15th year, fon of Dr. Mavor, of Woodstock.

XTHENCE it follows, that thefe two fources of right being diverted from their channel, all virtue and all truth is loft on earth, and Justice herfelf re-ascends her native heaven. On this account, it is not true that the real good was discovered by the pagan philosophers, for they were ignorant either of its origin or its tendency; and to no one else has it been disclosed, except to christians. It will be asked, however, are there not among you some poor, others rich, some fervants, and others masters? Is there not an evident disparity in each individual? We answer, none; nor is there any reason why we should stile each other brothers, unless that we believe ourselves to be on a level. For when we estimate human things, we regard not person but spirit; and although the condition of the body may be different, yet we have no fervants; but we esteem and rank all as brethren in the spirit and sellow-servants in Christ. Nor do riches render persons honourable, un'ess they, at the same time, make their possessors more illustrious in beneficence. For men are rich, not in proportion as they enjoy opulence, but as they devote it to the advancement of justice. And those who seem poor, are yet rich on this account, because they neither want more nor covet more. Since, therefore, we are judged by God, folely according to our merit; the free are equal in the endowments of the mind with flaves, and the rich with the poor. And in confequence the more exalted any one is, the more just he ought to be. For if it evinces a right way of thinking in a superier

rior ftan not have tain who felve noth reme thin as t folly who befor vant: mica rank, can r ject? partie "He hum teach and b with

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This rience, particip word of compet rior to equal himself with his inferiors, (though in this instance he excels them on account of his humility) yet if he not only brings himself to a level with the low, but even behaves himself as an inferior; in the figh; of God he will obtain more elevated distinction. In this mortal life, indeed, where every thing is transitory and frail, men plume themfelves on superiority, and rival each other in dignity. But nothing is more arrogant, nothing more base, nor farther remote from the true wisdom than this. For these sublunary things are widely different from fuch as are celeftial. as the wildom of men is the greatest folly before God, fo folly (as I have shewn) may be the greatest wisdom; for he who is conspicuous and great on earth, is humble and mean before God. For not to infilt on these present terrestrial advantages, to which so much honour is paid, as being inimical to virtue, and tending to effeminate the mind, what rank, or wealth, or power, can be permanent; fince God can reduce the most potent monarch below the meanest subject? And therefore God, admonishing us of our duty, particularly enforces this maxim in the divine writings. "He who exalts himself shall be brought low, and he who humbles himself shall be exalted." This falutary doctrine teaches us, that he who efteems himself low among men, and behaves with humility, will be great and honourable with God. Nor is the fentiment of Euripides destitute of truth-" What we deem evils here, are bleffings in heaven."

Attellation.

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MR. EDITOR, and the standard and arrayed at The. Though St. Pierre, with his usual visionary refinement, confiders it as the misfortune of our species, and the source of numerous crimes, that the general maxim inculcated in European education, is, " endeavour to be first," yet I am wholly of opinion, that if it were possible to root emulation out of our nature, every glorious quality would be loft; the foul itself would become torpid, and all its energies decay.

This reflection arises from the tendency, which I find from experience, your incentives to exertion have on juvenile minds. To participate in the rewards fo liberally distributed; even to receive a word of commendation, has a confiderable effect on your youthful competitors. Hence the above unaffisted attempt of my eldest son,

M 2

whom

124 Mathemaitcal Solution, by Mafter Emerfan.

whom you have already distinguished, and who will be fifteen years old next November.

I am, Mr. Editor, Your fincere well wisher,

W. MAVOR.

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Woodflock, Aug. 19, 1800.

PRIZE SOLUTION

TO THE

MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

By MASTER JOHN EMERSON, AGED 14 YEARS AND THREE MONTHS.

Of Mr. Nicholfon's Academy, Forth-house, Newcastleupon-Tyne.

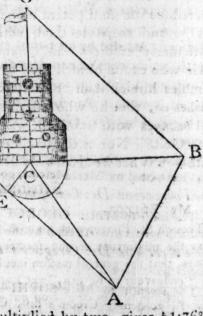
SUPPOSE A and B the two stations, and C G the tower and slag-staff. Then as the L CBG is 45°, the distances AC, BC, and CG, are each equal to 100, the height of the knob above the horizontal plane.

But ACB being an equilateral triangle the angles are each 60°, we have the LEAB — LCAB = 75° — 60° = 15° the LCAE. E Hence in the triangle ACE we have AC = 100, and the L's given to find CE, the radius of the tower; that is, radius: AC: natural fine LCAE:

25.8819 = CE, which multiplied by two, gives 51.7638, the diameter or thickness of the tower.

Then 100 - 25 8819 = 74 1181, the least distance between the tower and each station.

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GENERAL

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES

GIVEN WITH THE EIGHTH NUMBER.

CLASS I.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

"To shew, by argument and example, the happiness of the middle station of life; and that it is true wisdom to pursue in all things what has been termed the golden mean."

The first prize has been adjudged to Master J. DENNISON, of Liverpool, aged 15. Attested by M. Baitton.

To receive a pair of Adams's twelve inch Globes, value Three Guineas and a Half.

The fecond to Miss S. D. METCALF, of Holborn, aged 15. Attefted by her mother.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a guinea.

The third to Master J. HAWKSWORTH, of Pentonville, aged 15. Attested by his father.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The fourth to Master JOHN TURNER, of Magdalen School, Oxford, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Allen, second master.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Education.

The fifth to Mifs JANE LEWIS, of North Baddesley, aged 14. Attested by Mrs. Metcalf, governess.

To receive Dr. Goldsmith's History of England.

The fixth to Master GEORGE WARING ORMEROD, of Bolton, aged 15. Attested by the Rev. J. Bancroft.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The seventh to Miss SOPHIA TONGUE, of Mrs. Small-wood's academy, Croom's-hill, Greenwich. Attested by Miss Smallwood.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The eighth to Master F. BE ITS, of Mr. Comefild's academy, Northampton, aged 13. Attested by Mr. Comfield.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

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The ninth to Miss MARIA HAGUE, of Northampton, aged 13. Attested by her mother and Mr. Comfield.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The tenth to Master SAMUEL MARSOM, of Worcester, aged 15. Attested by Mr. Osborn, his tutor.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The eleventh to Master AUGUSTUS ALEXANDER, of Fladbury School, Worcestershire, aged 15. Attested by Mr. Harward, head master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Abridgment of Plutarch's Lives.

Many of the following have great merit, particularly that of Master J. BROWN, and of Miss E. MARTINEAU, which are scarcely inferior to some of those which have obtained prizes; and all of them are deserving of COMMENDATION. From Master CLARKE and Miss C. FIELD, both of whom are excluded by a preceding rule, we have also received excellent essays on this subject.

Mafter Thomas Allies, aged 15, pupil of Mr. George Ofborn, Angel-row, Worcester.

Miss Maria Bell, aged 12, of Miss Robins's school, Worcester.

Matter Jeremiah Buckstrout, aged 14, pupil of Mr. James Falconar. Doncaster Academy.

Mils Emma Bedford, of the Crefcent School, Birmingham, daughter of Mr. Bedford, attorney.

Master John Button, seminary, Thorp-Arch, Yorkshire.

Mafter T. Browne, aged 14; attested by Mr. J. Corrie, Berch's-green, rear Bin him.

Miss Eliza Ann Bell, aged 15, of Miss Pope's private school, Crefcent, Birmingham.

Miss Selina Bourne, aged 13, of Miss Pope's private school, Crefcent, Birmingham.

Miss Priscilla Clarke, aged 13, Crescent School, Birmingham. Master G. Clarke, aged 13 years, of Mr. Comfield's academy,

Northampton.

Master Josi h Conder, aged 10, of Messirs. Palmer's school, Hackney.

Mils Elizabeth Ann Chace, aged 14, of Luton.

Miss Dickinson, aged 14. daughter of William Dickinson, Esq. of Edgbuston hall, near Birmingham.

Miss Elizabeth Ryland Dent, aged 11, daughter of Mrs. Dent, boarding-school, Northampton.

Master John Huddon Dawson, aged 10, son of Mr. J. Dawson, Sheffield.

Matter J. Edmonds, aged 13, of Mr. Comfield's academy, North-ampton.

Mafter G. S. Forfer, Halifax.

Master Fisher, aged 14, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton, Miss Caroline Gem, of Crescent School, Birmingham.

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Mafter H. Green, aged 13, seminary, Thorp Arch.

Master John Grantham, of Mr. Raymond's academy, Lewes.

Master Joseph Harris, aged 12, of York Academy; attested by Mr. Williams, the head master.

Miss Hannah Hancox, aged 11, of Miss Robins's school, Worcester. Master R. M. Hawley.

Master Joseph Keep, aged 12, of Mr. Comfield's academy, North-

Mils C. Letbbridge, aged 14.

Master Thomas Lewis, Great George-street, Westminster.

Mils S. Mott, aged 15, of Mils Pope's private school, Crescent, Birmingham.

Miss Eliza Martineau, aged 14, of Mrs. Green's seminary, Upper Gower-street.

Master Merridew, aged 11, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Master Samuel Newbould, aged 14, seminary, Thorp Arch.

Master Richard Nanton, aged 14, of Messis. Palmer's school,

Master Hugh Oquen, aged 15; attested by the Rev. Robert Breakspear, head master of the grammar school, of Andlem, near Nantwich.

Miss Catharine Powys, aged 15, daughter of the Rev. Edward Powys, of Chedleton, Staffordshire.

Miss Penelope Parsons, aged 14, of Miss Pope's private school, Crescent, Birmingham.

Master Samuel Raban, son of Mr. James Raban, of Olney, Bucks. Miss R. S. Sutherland, aged 14, daughter of Mr. J. Sutherland, Woburn, Bedfordshire.

Master Jedidiah Strutt, seminary, Thorp-Arch.

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Matter John Smith, aged 13, grammar school, Gainsborough.

Master W. Sbingleton, aged 15, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Matter Geo. Simmons, aged 15, of Tremough school, near Falmouth. Matter George Turner, No. 391, Strand.

Mafter John Vincent Ibompjon, of Thorp-Arch: attested by the

Rev. J. Peers, Rector.

Master Samuel Taylor, aged 14, late of Mr. Clarke's school, Birmingham.

Master C. W. Thompson, aged 12, seminary, Thorp-Arch. Miss Anne Tomlinson, aged 13, of Else's academy, Newark.

Master Richard Thurston, aged 12, of Mr. Amphell's academy, Wolverhampton.

Master Henry Walter, attested by the Rev. James Walter, master of the Free Gramar School, at Brigg,

Mis Jane Wood, aged 14, of Mis Pope's private school, Crescent, Birmingbam.

Master J. Walker, aged 12, of Mr. J. Amphlett's seminary, Wolverhampton.

Master Charles Wills, aged 15; attested by Mr. Williams, Green Lodge.

Master K. V. Yates, aged 14. Buck's-green, near Birmingham.

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CLASS II.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECOND SUBJECT.

TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN MAVOR, of Woodstock, aged 14. Attested by his father, Dr. Mavor.

To receive Books value One Guinea and a Half.

The fecond to Mafter H. GREEN, of Thorp-Arch Seminary, aged 13. Attested by Mr. Peers, rector.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Master J. PROWNE, of Birche's-green, near Birmingham, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Corrie, master.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

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The fourth to Maner J. DUNSFORD, of Magdalen School, Oxford, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Elliston, master.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Education.

The fifth to Master H. LUCAS, of Gosport Academy, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Cumyns, assistant.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The fixth to Master BENJAMIN MANLY, of Mr. Wilkinson's academy, Compton, near Silsoe, Bedfordshire, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Marr, assistant.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Lives of Plutarch abridged.

The feventh to Master J. CLARKE, of Messirs. Palmer's academy, Hackney, aged 14. Attested by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Allen's Roman History.

The eighth to Master R. MOORSOM, of Thorp-Arch Seminary, aged 14 and a quarter. Attested by the Rev. J. Peers.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The ninth to Master ROBERT BRIGGS, aged 12, of Hull Academy. Attested by Mr. Ashton, head master,

To receive Dr. Mavor's Lives of Plutarch abridged.

In the foregoing ajudication we have endeavoured, after two or three careful perufals, to discriminate as nearly as possible the merits of the respective candidates; yet we must confess that several of the following are very nearly equal to the productions of those who have been more successful. Some have been rejected from occasional mistakes in the construction, arising in part, probably, from not having the context before them, and which are, in fast, so many proofs of the fairness of the attestations; and some are inserior in

the composition to the approved translations, a point which we earneftly recommend to the attention of our young translators, as to give the mere literal fen'e of the author is not sufficient, it should be done with precision and elegance. All the following, however, are deserving of COMMENDATION, particularly if the youth of the authors be confidered.

Mafter James Bayne, aged 13, of the Grammar School, Aberdeen; attested by Mr. Bentley, King's College.

Master G. T. W. Boves, aged 12, of the Gosport Academy.

Master William Broadburst, aged 13, of Messis. Haywood and

Bolton's academy, Attercliffe.

Master John Button, aged 13, of Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch. Master John Beddome, aged 13, of Mess. Palmer's school, Hackney. Malter William Lashmar Batley, aged 14, of Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp Arch.

Master John Croffe, aged 13, ditto. Master William Clarke, aged 12, ditto.

Mafter Matthew Charles Dunbar, aged 11, No. 20, Chapel-freet,

Pentonville.

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many ior in the Mafter William Dyer, aged 14, of Mr. Weaver's school, Chippenham. Master G. F. Dickson, aged 13, of Mess. Palmer's school, Hackney. Master Thomas Eyre, aged 12, of Messis. Haywood and Bolton's academy, Attercliffe.

Mafter George Archer Ellis, aged 12, pupil to Mr. C. Nichols, teacher of the math matics, &c. Yarmouth, who subscribes the

attestation.

Master John Finch, aged 14, of Mr. Wick's academy, Englesield-

Master William Cockayne Frith, aged 14, of Kentish Town; attested by his mother.

Matter James Henry Frith, aged 14, of the Gosport Academy.

Matter William Ody Hare, aged 13, of the Rev. Mr. Weaver's

school, Chippenham, Oxfordshire,

Master John Gregory, aged 11, of Mess. Palmer's school, Hackney. Mafter John Gates, of Mr. Fallowfield's academy, Daventry, Northamptonshire.

Master George Hodgkinson, of Morton Grange, aged 13, at Mestrs. Haywood and Bolton's academy, Attercliffe.

Matter William Humbly, aged 13, of Tremough School, Falmouth;

attested by the head matter. Malter Richard Lee, aged 13, of the Grammar School, Bury, Lan-

cashire; attested by Mr. Hodgson, the head matter. Master P. J. Merion, aged 14; attested by Mr. Peter Martin,

furgeon, Pulboro'. Mater Paul Lell Patrick, aged 13, of the Rev. Mr. Weaver's

school, Chippenham: Master Frederick Henry Papendick, of Christ's Hospital, aged 13. s Master William Richardson, aged 14, seminary, Thorp-Arch; at-

tested by the Rev. J. Peers, redor.

Master Henry Smith, aged 14, Grammar School, Gainsbro'. Master

Master Thomas Taylor, aged 14, of Middleton School, county of Cork; attested by the Rev. Richard Grier, head master.

Mafter C. W. Thompson, aged 12, feminary, Thorp-Arch.

Matter Frederick Trash, aged 14, of Mr. Nash's academy, Marlow, Bucks.

Matter Joseph Turner, aged 13; attested by Mr. Charles Nichols, Yarmouth.

Master William Hemsworth Wilkinson, aged 14, of Gainsborough Grammar School.

Matter Nathaniel Walker, aged 12, of Magdalen School, Oxford; attested by Mr. Elletton, the head matter.

Master W. H. Young, aged 13, of the Hull Academy.

CLASS III.

ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES IN THE MATHEMATICAL SOLUTION.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN EMERSON; aged 14 years and three months, of Mr. Nicholson's academy, Forth House, Newcastle upon-Tyne. Attested by Mr. Nicholson.

To receive a pair of Adams's nine-inch Globes, value Two Guineas and a Half.

The second prize has been adjudged to Master WILLIAM BINGLEY, aged 14 years and five months, of Mr. Falconer's academy, Doncaster. Attested by Mr. Falconer.

To receive a Case of Mathematical Instruments, value Fifteen Shillings.

The third prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN ELLIOTT, aged 14 years and two months, in the house of Messis. Robert Brightmore and Co. Shessield. Attested by Mr. R. Brightmore.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The fourth has been adjudged to Master JOSEPH BENNETT, aged 14 years, at the Nottingham Academy. Attested by the head master, the Rev. Mr. Blanchard.

To receive a Silver Medal, value five Sillings.

The fifth prize has been adjudged to Matter WILLIAM NIGHTINGALE, aged 12 years and fix months, at Audenshaw Echool, near Manchester. Attested by Mr. John Taylor, master.

To receive a Silver Medal, value five Shillings.

And an EXTRA PRIZE of a five shilling book has been awarded to Master JOHN BAXTER, of Mr. Ashton's academy, Hull.

Also a SECOND EXTRA PRIZE of a five shilling book to Master JOHN EADON, of Shessield.

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Ti to be The folutions of the following persons possess VERY CONSI-DERABLE MERIT, and deserve our PARTICULAR COM-MENDATION.

Master James Caldwell, aged 14 years and three months, pupil of Mr. Richard Ashcroft, of Eccles, near Manchester.

Mafter Thomas Simcox Lea, not 12 years of age, pupil of Mr. John Corrie, of Birch's-green, near Birmingham. This, confidering the extreme youth of the candidate, is a very extraordinary production; and we regret that we had not this month another prize to distribute.

Master Robert Shields, aged 14 years and five months, pupil in Mr. Rusherford's academy, Lanchester, near Durham.

Master Robert Stirling, aged 13, pupil at Mr. Webster's academy, York-house, Blackheath. Besides the mathematical skill evinced in this production, we feel it our duty to commend the very neat manner in which it is written.

Mafter Robert Surtees, not 15 years of age, of Mr. Rutherford's academy, Lanchester, near Durham.

N. B. We have been much gratified with the second ingenious production of THOMAS CLIF ION, the self-taught shoe-black, of Mr. Blanchard's academy, Nottingham. We regret that his age exceeds the limits of our proposals, but trust his industry will meet with its due reward from some friend of merit in his native county.

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NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. X.

Answers to be received, post paid, and fully authenticated, on or before the Fifth of November.

CLASS I.

EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR.

Whether the laws of Solon, or those of Lycurgus, were most conducive to the virtue and happiness of mankind?*

The best essay to be entitled to a pair of twelve inch globes, or to books, value three guineas; the second best to a filver medal, value half a guinea; and the eight next best to books, value five shillings each.

^{*} An account of the lives and laws of these two eminent legislators will be found in Dr. Mavor's late publication for schools, of Select Lives of Plutarch, vide pages 22 and 53.

CLASS II.

TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

FOR YOUNG GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR THIRTEENTH YEAR.

A Translation of the following passage from Sallust's Bellum Catilinarium, page 1; beginning "Omnis homines, qui sese student præstare cæteris animalibus, summa ope niti decet, ne vitam silentio transeant, veluti pecora, quæ natura prona atque ventri obedientia sinxit:" and ending, "De cujus hominis moribus pauca prius explananda sunt, quam initium narrandi faciam."

The best translation to be entitled to a Cabinet Library, value one guinea and a half; the seven next best to books, value five shill.

lings each.

CLASS III.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXERCISE.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN NOT EXCEEDING
FIFTEEN YEARS OF AGE.

It is required to draw a correct Map of the Great South Sea, commencing at about the latitude of fixty fouth and extending to fifty north, and including the longitude of Juan Fernandez, on the one hand, and of the Ladrone Islands on the other. The fize to be about twelve inches square.

The completest and most correct map will entitle the drawer to seceive a pair of Adams's twelve inch globes, value three guineas and a half; the second best to a copy of Watkins's Biographical and Historical Dictionary, value twelve shillings; the third best to a copy of Brookes's Gazetteer; and the six next best to books, value sive shillings each.

TO CORRESPONDENTS, &c.

SEVERAL Prizes still lie at the Publisher's, which will be delivered to the order of the country bookseller who supplies the Preceptor.

It is particularly requested that the attestations may be written

on the same sheet of paper as the productions.

Master Joseph Dennison is surong in supposing that the attestation of a Parent is necessary. We, in fact, prefer the attestation of a Tutor; and always swish, swhen it is possible, that the attestation of a Tutor might be added to that of a Parent.

Mr. WICK's bints have been received, and the Editor is much obliged to him for them. They are at present under consideration, and, as far as circumstances will admit, will in future be followed.

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JUVENILE LIBRARY.

LECTURES,

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF YOUNG PERSONS,

ON

Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE IX.

OF THE PHENOMENA OF THE ATMOSPHERE.

THE word phenomena, which flands at the head of this lecture, and which I shall frequently have occafion to use, means simply an appearance. It is derived from the Greek verb PHAINOMAI, which fignifies to appear; but it is generally used to imply any striking or remarkable appearance. The atmosphere I before explained to mean that mass of air which furrounds this globe. Various conjectures have been made with respect to the height of the atmosphere; and as we know to a certainty the relative weight of a column of the atmosphere by the height to which its pressure will raise water or mercury in an empty tube, so different calculations have been founded on these data, to afcertain its extent as well as its denfity at different heights. If the air of our atmosphere was indeed every where of a uniform dentity, the problem would be very eafily folved. We should, in that case, have nothing more to do than to find out the proportion between the height of a short pillar of air, and a small pillar of water of equal weight; and having compared the proportion the heights of these bear to each other in the small, the same proportion will be fure to hold in the great, between a pillar of water thirty-two feet high, and a pillar of air that reaches to the top of the atmosphere, whose height I want to know. Thus, for instance, we find that a certain weight of water reaches one inch high, and a fimilar weight of air reaches Vol. II. ieventyfeventy-two feet high: this then is the proportion two such pillars bear to each other in the small. Now, if one inch of water is equal to seventy-two feet of air, to how much air will thirty-two feet of water be equal? By the common rule of proportion I readily find, that thirty-two feet, or three hundred and eighty-four inches of water, will be equal to three hundred and thirty-one thousand seven hundred and seventy-fix inches, which makes something more than sive miles, which would be the height of the atmosphere, was its density every where the same as at the earth, where seventy-two feet of air were equal to one inch of water.

But this is not really the case; for the air's density is not every where the same, but decreases as the pressure upon it decreases; so that the air becomes lighter and lighter the higher we ascend; and at the upper part of the atmosphere, where the pressure is scarce any thing at all, the air dilating in proportion, must be expanded to a surprising degree; and therefore the height of the atmosphere must be much greater than has appeared by the last calculation, in which its density was supposed to be every where as great as at the furface of the earth. In order, therefore, to determine the height of the atmosphere more exactly, geometricians have endeavoured to determine the density of the air at different diffances from the earth. The following fketch will give an idea of the method which fome geometricians have taken to determine this denfity, which is preparatory to finding out the height of the atmosphere more exactly.

Let us suppose a pillar of air to reach from the top of the atmosphere down to the earth's surface; and let us also suppose it marked like a standard by inches, from the top to the bottom; let us still farther suppose, that each inch of air, if not at all compressed, would weigh one grain. The topmost inch, then, weighs one grain, as it suffers no compressure whatsoever; the second inch is pressed by the topmost with a weight of one grain, and this added to its own natural weight or density of one grain, now makes its density, which is ever equal to the pressure, two grains. The third inch is pressed down by the weight of the two inches above it, whose weights united make three grains,

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and these added to its natural weight, give it a density of four grains. The fourth inch is pressed by the united weight of the three above it, which together make feven grains, and this added to its natural weight give it a denfity of eight grains. The fifth inch, being preffed by all the former fifteen, and its own weight, added, gives it a denfity of fixteen grains, and fo on, descending downwards to the bottom. The first inch has a density of one, the iecond inch a density of two, the third inch a density of four, the fourth inch of eight, the fifth of fixteen, and to on. Thus the inches of air increase in density as they descend from the top, at the rate of one, two, four, eight, fixteen, thirty-two, fixty-four, and fo on, which is called a geometrical progression. Or if we have a mind to take this backwards, and begin at the bottom, we may fay, that the denfity of each of these inches grows less upwards in a geometrical progression. If, instead of inches, we suppose the parts into which this pillar of air is divided to be extremely fmall, like those of air, the rule will hold good in these as well as those. So that we may generally affert, that the density of the air, from the surface of the earth, decreases in a geometrical proportion.

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This being understood, should I now defire to know the denfity of the air at any certain height, I have only first to find out how much the density of the air is diminished to a certain standard height, and thence proceed to tell how much it will be diminished at the greatest heights that can be imagined. At small heights the diminution of its density is by fractional or broken numbers. We will suppose at once, then, for greater ease, that at the height of five ' miles, or a Dutch league, the air is twice less dense than at the furface of the earth: then, at two leagues high, it must be four times thinner and less dense, and at three leagues eight times thinner and lighter, and fo on. Instead of Dutch leagues, suppose we took a German league of seven miles, and that it was four times less dense at the height of the first German league, then it would decrease in the same proportion, and be four times less dense than the first at the second league, that is, fixteen times; and four times less dense than the fecond at the third league, that is, fixty-four times;

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and

and four times less dense than the third at the fourth league, that is, two hundred and fifty-fix times less dense than at the furface. In short, whatever decrease it received in the first step, it will continue to have in the same proportion in the second, third, and so on; and this, as we said, is called

geometrical progression.

Upon the same principle it was attempted to calculate the height of the atmosphere. By carrying a barometer to the top of a high mountain, the density of the air at two or three different stations was easily ascertained.—But, alas! so seeble are human efforts in endeavouring to comprehend and measure the works of the Creator, that this theory was soon demolished. It was found that the barometrical observations by no means corresponded with the density which, by other experiments, the air ought to have had; and it was therefore suspected that the upper parts of the atmosphere were not subject to the same laws or the same proportions as those which were nearer the surface of the earth. Another still more ingenious method was therefore devised.

- Aftronomers know, to the greatest exactness, the place of the heavens in which the fun is at any one moment of time: they know, for instance, the moment in which it will set, and also the precise time in which it is about to rise. However, upon awaiting his appearance any morning, they always fee the light of the fun before its body, and they fee the fun itself some minutes sooner above the mountain top, than it ought to appear from their calculations. Twilight they fee long before the fun appears, and that at a time when they know that it is eighteen degrees lower than the verge of the sky. There is then, in this case, something which deceives our fight; for we cannot Suppose the fun to be so irregular in his motions as to vary every morning: this would disturb the regularity of nature. The deception actually exists in the atmosphere. By looking through this dense, transparent substance, every celestial object that lies beyond it is feemingly raifed up, in fome fuch manner as we see a piece of money look as if raised higher in a bason filled with water. From hence it is plain, that if the atmosphere was away, the fun's light would not be brought to view fo long in the morning before the fun itself actually

appears.

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appears. The sun, without the atmosphere, would appear all blazing in light the instant it rose, and leave us in total darkness the instant of its setting. The length of the twilight, therefore, is in proportion to the height of the atmosphere; or let us invert this and say, that the height of the atmosphere is in proportion to the length of the twilight. It is generally found, by this means, to be about forty-five miles high, so that it was hence concluded either that that was the actual limit of the atmosphere, or that it must be of an extreme rarity indeed at that height.

The density of the air, however, depends not merely on the pressure it sustains, but on other circumstances; so that it varies even at the same height in different parts, and even in the same place at different times, as is seen by the mercury in the barometer rising to different heights, according to the state of the weather. Heat in particular I mentioned as a very powerful cause in rarefying the air. From this circumstance arises one of the most striking and formidable of the atmospherical phenomena-I mean the WIND. Wind is nothing but a strong current or stream of air. Whenever, therefore, the air is heated by the fun, or by any other means, it will be rarefied, and less able to refift the pressure of the adjacent air, which will confequently rush in "to restore the equilibrium," to fpeak in the technical language of philofophy, or, in plain terms, to reduce the rarefied part to a uniform density with the other. This current of air is fenfibly felt near the door of a glass-house, or wherever there is a large fire. A current of air is also to be perceived rushing through the key-hole, or any chink or crevice, into a heated room. This may ferve to give you a general idea of the causes of winds.

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This principle we consequently find realised on a great scale, in what are called the trade winds, which blow constantly from east to west near the equator. When the sun shines violently upon any part of the earth, it is plain that, by the immense accession of heat, the air must be greatly rarested. The cold air will therefore rush from the adjacent parts to that where there is little resistance, and consequently cause a stream or current of air, in other words, a wind, towards that quarter. The sun rises in the east and sets in the

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west, consequently the air will be heated gradually from east to west, and the wind will blow in that direction. Near the equator, therefore, where the surface of the earth is heated in succession from east to west, there will be a constant wind from the east, but, on the north side of the line it will incline a little to the north, and on the south side a little to the south, for an obvious reason, because it is colder towards each pole, and therefore the mass of cool air will be principally drawn from these quarters.

The fame cause will explain the land and sea breezes in the tropical climates. In islands, and small tracts of land which run into the fea, in those regions it will generally be found that, during the day, there is a current of air towards the fea, and at evening the current fets in from the fea to the The reason of this is, that water is always of a more even temperature, that is, of a more equal heat than land. During the day, therefore, the land becomes confiderably heated, and the air is rarefied; the consequence is, that in the afternoon a breeze fets in from the fea, which is less heated. On the contrary, during the course of the night the land lofes its heat, while that of the fea continues more nearly the fame. Towards morning, therefore, a breeze regularly proceeds from the land towards the ocean, where the air is warmer, and confequently more rarefied than on shore.

The monfoons are periodical winds which blow between the tropics, and which, though the theory of them is rather more complicated, depend upon the fame cause. They depend, indeed, upon large tracks of territory being heated during the warm season, by which the general course of the trade winds is partially interrupted. Thus, when the sun approaches the tropic of cancer, the soil of Persia, Bengal, China, and the adjoining countries, is so much more heated than the sea towards the southward of these countries, that, instead of the usual trade wind, the current of air proceeds at that season from the south to the north, contrary to what it would if no land was there. But as the high mountains in Africa, during all the year, are extremely cold, the low countries in India to the eastward of it become hotter than Africa during the summer, and the air is naturally drawn thence to

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the eastward. From the same cause the trade wind in the Indian ocean blows, from April to October, in a north-east direction, contrary to the general course of the trade wind in the open sea in the same latitude; but when the sun retires behind the tropic of capricorn, these northern parts become cooler, and the general trade wind assumes its natural direction. In the northern tropic the monsoons depend upon similar causes.

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In our climate the winds are more variable, because the rarefactions which take place in the air are here more partial, more frequent and fudden than in the tropical regions. I have fufficiently explained to you that whatever dilates or rarefies the air in any part must produce a wind or current of air towards that part. Among the most powerful causes of winds, therefore, we must account the electricity of the atmosphere, which (as will be explained to you hereafter) is the cause of thunder and lightning. A thunder storm. therefore, is commonly either preceded or followed by a florm of wind. The rays of the fun are also sometimes partially interrupted by clouds or mists in particular places, confequently the earth will be more strongly heated in one part than another, in which case there will always be a current of air from the colder to the warmer region. The fall of rain too, and many other circumstances, may produce an alteration in the temperature, which will be followed by a change in the wind.

The storms which we experience in these happy climates are nothing when compared with those dreadful convulsions of nature, which are occasionally selt in warmer latitudes, where the fruits of a whole year's labour are often destroyed by a single burricane. These terrible phenomena happen generally in the rainy season, about the month of August. They are always preceded by an unusual calm, but the storm comes on suddenly, commonly accompanied with rain, thunder, and lightning, and sometimes with an earthquake. Whole towns are made a heap of ruins by one of these hurricanes; fields of sugar-canes are whirled through the air; the strongest trees are torn up by the roots, and tossed about like stubble; nor can any building be constructed strong enough to afford a shelter from the beating of the storm, and

the deluge of wet with which it is accompanied. The island of Jamaica was visited in the year 1780 by this troublesome calamity, and the damage which ensued is not to be calculated. The hurricanes in the West Indies have been attributed, with great probability, to some occasional obstruction in the usual and natural progress of the equatorial trade winds.

The barmattan is a wind which prevails occasionally during the months of December, January, and February, in the interior parts of Africa, and always blows towards the Atlantic ocean. There are generally three or four returns of it every feason; it blows with a moderate force, not quite so strong indeed as the fea breeze. A fog or haze always accompanies the harmattan, fo that the fun is concealed the greater part of the day, and the largest building cannot be seen at a quarter of a mile's distance. The particles which constitute this fog are deposited in the leaves of trees, and on the skins of the negroes, making them appear white. But the most extraordinary property of this wind is its extreme dryness. No dew falls during its continuance (on an average about a week). and the grafs is parched up like hay. Household furniture is cracked and destroyed, the pannels of wainscots split, the joints of a well laid floor of feafoned wood will open fo as to admit the breadth of a finger between them, and the covers of books, though flut up in a close cheft, are bent as if they had been exposed to the fire. Nor does the human body escape, the eyes, nostrils, lips, and palate are parched up and made very uneasy. Though the air is cool, there is a prickling heat all over the fkin; and if the harmattan continues four or five days, the fcarf Ikin peels off. This wind, though fatal to vegetable life, is highly conducive to the health of the human body. It stops all epidemics, judged no infection can be communicated during its continuance even by inoculation. It relieves patients labouring under fevers, and is remarkable for the cure of ulcers and cutaneous difeafes.

The firocco is as deleterious as the hermattan is falubrious. It is common in Italy and the fouth of France. In the former it is called the firocco, from a common opinion that it blows from Syria, in the latter it is called the Levant wind.

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for rife pre The medium heat of the weather while it blows is one hundred and twelve degrees. It is fatal to vegetables, and often destructive to the human species. It depresses the spirits in an unusual degree; it suspends the power of digestion, so that those who eat a heavy supper, while it continues, are often sound dead in their beds in the morning. The sick at that afflicting period commonly sink under the pressure of their diseases; and it is customary in the morning, when this wind has blown a whole night, to inquire who is dead.

The famiel, or mortifying wind of the deferts near Bagdat, is also dreadful in its effects. At its approach the camels instinctively bury their noses in the sand, and travellers throw themselves as close as possible to the ground till it has passed by, which is commonly in a few minutes. As soon as those who have life dare to rise up, they examine how it sares with their companions, by plucking their arms and legs, for if they are struck by the wind they will be so mortified that their limbs will come asunder. The satal effects of this wind must depend upon a quantity of putrid vapours with which it is charged, probably from blowing over stag-

pant lakes or marshes loaden with putrid matter.

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Whirlwinds, which are so sportive in their appearance in this country, carrying up straws and other light bodies a confiderable height in the air, have been known in the tropical countries to have had more tremendous effects. They are known there by the name of tornactoes, which carry up with them the whole materials of a cottage, or even large trees, with the same velocity as our whirlwinds do straws and the lightest bodies. A whirlwind at land is a water-spout at sea, at least both seem to proceed from the same cause. Wherever the air is fuddenly rarefied in a particular spot, from electricity or any other cause, a kind of vacuum is created, and the circumambient air rushing at once from every quarter, a conflict of winds takes place, and the circular motion, already noticed, enfues. It is to be observed that, in waterfpouts at fea, the water afcends, and does not descend (according to the vulgar notion) from the cloud, which is formed at the extremity of the spout. The water in this case rises, where the vacuum is created by the whirlwind, by the preffure of the atmosphere, as in a common pump. Only the vacuum

vacuum not being quite perfect, it rises in small drops, and forms the cloud at the upper extremity of the phenomenon. An artificial water-spout may be made in a very easy way. In a stiff paper or card make a hole just wide enough to insert a goose quill, then cut the quill off square at both ends; place the card at the top of a wine glass or tumbler filled with water to within about a quarter of an inch of the lower orifice of the quil. Then apply your mouth to the upper part of the quill, and draw out the air. The water in the glass will then be seen raised in the form of an inverted cone like a waterspout, and not in a continued stream, but broken into drops, and mingled with particles of air.

It is by the agency of the air that water is raifed in vapour from the earth to form clouds. You need scarcely, I presume, be told that clouds are water in the state of vapour, so is the common fmoke which you fee afcend from our chimnies, the columns of which, in fact, are fo many clouds. Vapour, you will remember, is water expanded by heat or fire to the state of an elastic fluid (fee the lecture on fire and its properties), and it rifes in the atmosphere, because vapour is lighter or less dense than our common air (it is, in fact, fourteen hundred times lighter than the water of which it is composed, whereas common air, you know, is only about nine hundred times! lighter than water) and it is a rule in philosophy, depending on the principle of gravitation, that when two fluids of different densities are brought together, the lighter will always rife to the furface. It is, however, only near the furface of the earth that the air is denfer and more heavy than water. The vapours, therefore, can only rife to a limited height; and, I believe, it is generally agreed that there are no clouds at above four or five miles high in the atmosphere. You will recollect that if vapour, by coming in contact with a cold body, can be deprived of its heat, it is fuddenly condenfed into water again, as in the refrigeratory of a still, where the vapour, confined in a spiral tube, is made to pass through cold water, and is condenfed; and as in the fteam engine which was noticed in a former lecture.

If therefore the vapours in the atmosphere, or the clouds, by ascending into the colder regions of the air, by electricity, or by meeting with cold winds, are deprived of the heat which hap in a con rair the is fo mer is g

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which keeps them in the vapourific state, they will, of course, be condensed, and will fall down in the form of rain. Perhaps the attraction of the earth, when they approach it, may, in many cases, serve to draw off the superfluous heat, and condense the vapours, which may account for its generally raining on the tops of mountains, and for the changes of the weather predicted by the barometer. For when the air is to far rarefied as not to be able to support the column of mercury to a certain height in the tube of the barometer, it

is generally regarded as a fure prognostic of rain.

The cold, in the higher regions of the atmosphere, is sometimes fo great as to freeze the vapour of the clouds. In this case it is also condensed, and too heavy to be supported, and it then falls in the form of fnow. But this is only when the freezing is fo fudden, that the particles of vapour have not time to unite into drops, and this accounts for the beautiful. feathery appearance of falling fnow! If, on the contrary, the cold in the atmosphere is so moderate as to allow the watry particles to unite into drops before they become frozen, then of these drops small icicles are produced, which are called bail, or hailstones. Hail, when first formed, must be perfectly round, according to the laws of fluids, which, when pressed equally on all sides, assume a spherical form, and yet when it falls, it is often found to be angular. This must happen either from the particles in their descent having begun to diffolve, or from their attaching to their furface in their fall other small particles of water, which are congealed in the mass. This latter supposition is countenanced by the unufual fize of which hailstones are sometimes found. When they begin to fall they can be no larger than drops of rain. and this accession of matter must certainly be acquired in the course of their descent.

The dew, which falls in a fummer evening, is part of the vapour which is raifed in the course of the day by the fun's heat, but not being completely dissolved or dispersed in the atmosphere, it is condensed, and falls with the evening's cold. In cool nights the dew often becomes frozen in the form of boar froft.

The atmospherical phenomena will be further explained,

when we come to treat of electricity.

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NATURAL

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE BAT.

THE last genus in the order of primates is the bat. The generic character given by Linnæus, is, the toes elongated, and connected by membranes performing the office of wings; a character so obvious, that no person who has once seen a bat can be in danger of mistaking it. Linnæus has enumerated six species, but not more than two of them are

common in this country.

The bat which is best known in England, is about the size of a mouse, or nearly two inches and a half long. The membranes that are usually called wings, are, properly speaking, an extension of the skin all round the body, except the head, which, when the animal slies, is kept stretched on every side, by the four interior toes of the fore seet, which are enormously long, and serve like masts and yards that keep the canvas of a sail spread, and regulate its motions.* The first toe is quite loose, and serves as a heel when the bat walks, or as an hook, when it would adhere to any thing. The hind seet are disengaged from the surrounding skin, and divided into sive toes, somewhat resembling those of a mouse. The skin by which it slies is of a dusky colour. The body is covered with a short sur, of a mouse colour, tinged with red. The eyes are very small; the ears like those of a mouse.

This species of the bat is very common in England. It makes its first appearance early in summer, and begins its slight in the dusk of the evening. It principally frequents the sides of woods, glades, and shady walks; and is frequently observed to skim along the surface of pieces of water. It pursues gnats, moths, and nocturnal insects of every kind. It seeds upon these; but will not resuse meat wherever it can find it. Its slight is a laborious, irregular movement; and if it happens to be interrupted in its course, it cannot readily prepare for a second elevation; so that if it strikes against any object, and falls to the ground, it is usually taken. It appears only in the most pleasant evenings, when its prey is generally abroad, and slies in pursuit with its mouth open. At other times it continues in its retreat, the

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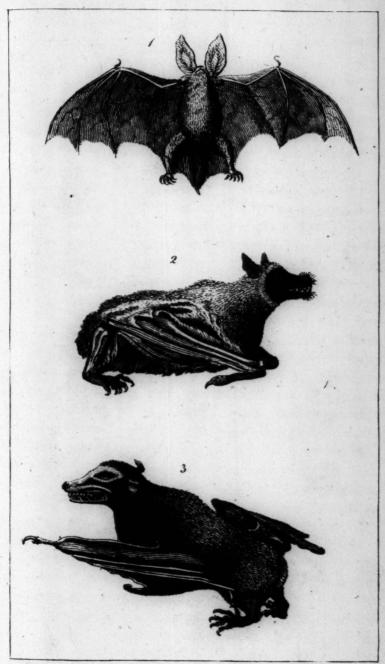
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1. Long Eared Bat .

- 2. Great Madagascar Bat .
- 3. Spectre Bat.

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chink of a ruined building, or the hollow of a tree. Thus this little animal, even in fummer, fleeps the greatest part of its time, never venturing out by day-light, nor in rainy weather; never hunting in quest of prey, but for a small part of the night, and then returning to its hole. But its short life is still more abridged by continuing in a torpid fate during the winter. At the approach of the cold feafon, the bat prepares for its state of lifeless inactivity, and feems rather to choose a place where it may continue fafe from interruption, than where it may be warmly or conveniently lodged. For this reason it is usually seen hanging by its hooked claws to the roofs of caves, regardless of the eternal damps that furround it. The bat feems the only animal that will venture to remain in these frightful fubterranean abodes, where it continues in a torpid state, unaffected by every change of the weather. Such of this kind as are not provident enough to procure themselves a deep retreat, where the cold and heat feldom vary, are fometimes exposed to great inconveniences, for the weather often becomes fo mild in the midst of winter as to warm them prematurely into life, and to allure them from their holes in quest of food, when nature has not provided a supply. These, therefore, have seldom strength to return; but, having exhaufted themselves in a vain pursuit after infects which are not to be found, are destroyed by the owl, or any other animal that follows fuch petty prey.

The bat couples and brings forth its young alive in fummer, generally from two to five at a time. The female has but two nipples, and those forward on the breast, as in the human kind. This was a fufficient motive for Linnaus to give it the title of a Primas, to rank it in the same order with mankind, and to push this contemptible animal among

the chiefs of the creation.

From Linnaus we learn, that the female makes no neft for her young, as most birds and quadrupeds are known to do. She is barely content with the first hole she meets, where, flicking herfelf by her hooks against the fides of her apartment, she permits her young to hang at the nipple, and in this manner to continue for the first or second day. When, after some time, the dam begins to grow hungry, Vol. II.

and finds a necessity of stirring abroad, she takes her little ones and sticks them in the wall, in the manner she before hung herself; there they immoveably cling, and patiently wait till her return.

Thus far this animal feems closely allied to the quadruped race. Its fimilitude to that of birds is less striking. As nature has furnished birds with extremely strong pectoral muscles, to move the wings, and direct their flight, so has it also furnished this animal. As birds also have their legs weak, and unfit for the purposes of motion, the bat has its legs fashioned in the same manner, and is never seen to walk, or, more properly speaking, to push itself forward with its hind legs, but in cases of extreme necessity. The toes of the fore legs, or, if we may use the expression, its extremely long fingers, extend the web like a membrane that lies between them; and this, which is extremely thin, ferves to lift the little body into the air: in this manner, by an unceafing percuffion, much swifter than that of birds, the animal continues, and directs its flight; however, the great labour required in flying foon fatigues it; for, unlike birds, which continue for days together upon the wing, the bat is tired in less than an hour, and then returns to its hole, satisfied with its supply, to enjoy the darkness of its retreat.

If we consider the bat as it is seen in our own country, we shall find it an harmless, inoffensive creature. It is true that it now and then steals into a larder, and, like a mouse, commits its petty thests upon the fattest parts of the bacon. But this happens seldom; the general tenor of its industry is employed in pursuing insects that are much more noxious to us than itself can possibly be; while its evening slight, and its unsteady wabbling motion, amuse the imagination, and add one sigure more to the pleasing groupe of animated nature.

The varieties of this animal, especially in our country, are but few; and the differences scarcely worth enumeration. Naturalists mention the long-eared bat, much less than that generally seen, and with much longer ears; the horse-shoe bat, with an odd protuberance round its upper lip, somewhat in the form of a horse-shoe; the rhinoceros bat, with a horn growing from the nose, somewhat similar to that animal

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animal whence it has the name. Thefe, with feveral others, whose varieties are too numerous, and differences too minute for a detail, are all inoffensive, minute, and contemptible; incapable, from their fize, of injuring mankind, and not fufficiently numerous much to incommode him. there is a larger race of bats found in the East and West Indies that are truly formidable; each of these is singly a dangerous enemy; but when they unite in flocks, they then become dreadful. Were the inhabitants of the African coasts,* says Des Marchais, to eat animals of the bat kind, as they do in the East Indies, they would never want a supply of provisions. They are there in such numbers, that, when they fly, they obscure the setting sun. In the morning, at peep of day, they are seen sticking upon the tops of the trees, and clinging to each other, like bees when they iwarm, or like large clusters of coco. The Europeans often amuse themselves with shooting among this huge mass of living creatures, and observing their embarrassiment when wounded. They fometimes enter the houses, and the negroes are expert at killing them; but although these people feem for ever hungry, yet they regard the bat with horror, and will not eat it, though ready to starve.

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Of foreign bats the largest we have any certain accounts of is the rousette, or the great bat of Madagascar. This formidable creature is near four feet broad, when the wings are extended; and a foot long, from the tip of the nose to the insertion of the tail. It resembles our bat in the form of its wings, in its manner of flying, and in its internal conformation. It differs from it in its enormous fize; in its colour, which is red, like that of a fox; in its head and nose alfo, which refemble those of that animal, and which have induced some to call it the flying iox: it differs also in the number of its teeth, and in having a claw on the fore foot, which is wanting in ours. This formidable creature is found only in the antient continent; particularly in Madagascar, along the coasts of Africa and Malabar, where it is usually seen about the size of a large hen. When they repose, they stick themselves to the tops of the tallest trees, and hang with their heads downward. But when they are

Des Marchais, vol. ii. p. 208.

in motion nothing can be more formidable: they are seen in clouds, darkening the air, as well by day as by night, destroying the ripe fruits of the country, and sometimes settling upon animals, and man himself: they devour, indiscriminately, fruits, slesh, and insects, and drink the juice of the palm-tree: they are heard at night in the forests at more than two miles distance, with an herrible din; but at the approach of day they usually begin to retire: nothing is safe from their depredations; they destroy sowls and domestic animals, unless preserved with the utmost care, and often sasten upon the inhabitants themselves, attack them in the sace, and inslict very terrible wounds. In short, as Dr. Goldsmith observes, the antients seem to have taken their ideas of harpies from these sierce and voracious creatures, as they both concur in many parts of the description, being

equally deformed, greedy, uncleanly, and cruel.

An animal not to formidable, but ftill more mischievous than these, is the American vampyre. This is less than the former; but more deformed, and fill more numerous. It is furnished with an horn like the rhinoceros but, and its cars are extremely long. The other kinds generally reloit to the forest and the most deserted places; but these come into towns and cities, and, after fun-fet, when they begin to fly, cover the fireets like a canopy.* They are the common pest both of men and animals; they effectually destroy the one, and often dittress the other. "They are," says Ulloa, "the most expert blood-letters in the world. The inhabitants of those warm latitudes being obliged, by the excessive heats, to leave open the doors and windows of the chambers where they fleep, the vampyres enter, and, if they find any part of the body exposed, they never fail to fasten upon it. There they continue to fuck the blood; and it often happens that the person dies under the operation. They infinuate their tooth into a vein, with all the art of the most experienced furgeon, continuing to exhaust the body, until they are fatiated. I have been affured," continues he, "by persons of the strictest veracity, that such an accident has happened to them; and that, had they not providentially waked, their fleep would have been their pal(

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^{*} Ulloa, vol. i.p. 58.

fage into eternity: having lost so large a quantity of blood as hardly to find strength to bind up the orifice. The reason why the puncture is not selt, is, besides the great precaution with which it is made, the gentle refreshing agitation of the bat's wings, which contribute to increase sleep, and soften the pain."

The purport of this account has been confirmed by va-'rious other travellers, who all agree that this bat is poffeffed of a faculty of drawing the blood from persons sleeping; and thus often destroying them before they awake. But ftill a very strong difficulty remains to be accounted for; the manner in which they inflict the wound. Ulloa, as has been feen, supposes that it is done by a fingle tooth; but this we know to be impossible, fince the animal cannot infix one tooth without all the rest accompanying its motions: the teeth of the bat kind being pretty even, and the mouth but fmall. Mr. Buffon, therefore, supposes the wound to be inflicted by the tongue, which, however, appears too large to inflict an unpainful wound, and even less qualified for that purpose than the teeth. Nor can the tongue, as Mr. Buffon feems to suppose, serve for the purposes of suction, fince for this it must be hollow, like a fyringe, which it is not found to be. It has therefore been supposed that the animal is endowed with a strong power of suction, and that, without inflicting any wound whatever, by continuing to draw, it enlarges the pores of the skin in such a manner that the blood at length passes, and that more freely the longer the operation is continued; fo that, at last, when the bat goes off, the blood continues to flow. In confirmation of this opinion we are told, that where beafts have a thick fkin. this animal cannot injure them; whereas, hories, mules, and affes, are very liable to be thus destroyed. As to the rest. these animals are considered as one of the great pests of South America, and often prevent the peopling of many parts of that continent: having destroyed at Barja, and feveral other places, fuch cattle as were brought there by the missionaries, in order to form a settlement.

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^{*} An instance of the same kind is recorded by a traveller of approved veracity, the late Col. Stedman, as having happened to himself. See his Travels in Guiana.

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY.

No. IX.

THE LIFE OF MRS. ELIZABETH ROWE.

THIS pious and ingenious lady was born at Ilchester, in Somersetshire, in 1674, being the cldest of the three daughters of Mr. Walter Singer, a gentleman of good family and estate, and Mrs. Elizabeth Portnell, both persons of eminent piety. On the death of his wife, Mr. Singer removed with his family to Frome, in the same county, where he died in 1719, leaving only the subject of the present memoir.

When the received the first serious impressions of religion does not appear, but it is evident that they were made while the was very young; for in one of her devotional addresses the expresses herself thus: "My infant hands were early lifted up to thee, and I soon learned to know and acknow-

ledge the God of my fathers."

She early shewed a fine taste for painting; and her father, to encourage her, was at the expence of a master to instruct her in the pleasing art, which never ceased to be her amusement to her death.

She was also much delighted with music, chiefly of the grave and solemn kind, as best suited to the noble grandeur of her sentiments, and the sublimity of her devotion.

But her strongest bent was to poetry. So prevalent, in fact, was her genius this way, that her very prose has all the charms of verse without the setters. She could hardly write a single letter to a friend but it bore the stamp of the poet. In 1696, being then in the twenty-second year of her age, a collection of her poems, on various occasions, was published at the desire of two of her friends, but without her name being prefixed to the volume.

What first introduced her to the notice of Lord Weymouth's family, was a copy of verses of her's, with which they were so highly delighted as to express a curiosity to see her; and the friendship that commenced from that time subsisted ever after. She was not then twenty years of age.

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Her paraphrase of the thirty-eighth chapter of Job was written at the request of Bishop Ken, who resided in that family.

She had no other tutor for the French and Italian languages than the honourable Mr. Thynne, fon to the Lord Viscount Weymouth, who willingly took that task upon himself, and had the pleasure to see his fair pupil improve so fast under his instructions, that, in a sew months, she was able to read Tasso's Jerusalem with great ease.

In the year 1710 the was married to Mr. Thomas Rowe, a young gentleman of great learning, and a most promising genius. His conflitution, however, was very delicate, and in 1715 he was carried off by a confumption. Mrs. Rowe continued to the last moments of her life to express the highest veneration and affection for the memory of her husband, and shewed a particular regard and esteem for his relations. On his death, which happened near London, his widow returned to Frome, in the neighbourhood of which place the greatest part of her estates lay. When she left the metropolis, it was with a refolution to return thither no more; but on fome few occasions this was broken, in compliance with the importunate requests of the honourable Mrs. Thynne, and the folicitations of the Countels of Hertford, afterwards Duchels of Somerset. But even on these occasions of friendship she never quitted her silent retreat without very fincere regret, and always returned to it as foon as the could with propriety difengage herfelf from the importunity of her noble friends.

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In this recess she composed her pieces, entituled Friendship in Death, and the several parts of her Letters Moral and Entertaining. The design of the former is, as Dr. Young informs us in the presace, "to impress the notion of the soul's immortality, without which all virtue and religion, with their temporal and eternal good consequences, must fall to the ground, and to make the mind contract, as it were, unawares an habitual persuasion of our future existence by writings built on that soundation." It may be added also, that the design both of these, and the Letters Moral and Entertaining, is, by sictitious examples of heroic virtue, and the most generous benevolence, to allure the reader to the

practice of every thing that ennobles human nature benefits the world, and by the just and lively images of the remorse and misery attendant on vice, to warn the young and unthinking from being seduced to ruin by the enchanting name of pleasure; the piety of which intention is the more worthy of the highest panegyric, as it is so uncommon in witty and polite writers.

In the year 1736, the importunity of some of Mrs. Rowe's acquaintance, who had seen the History of Joseph in manuscript, prevailed on her, though not without real reluctance, to suffer the poem to be made public. She wrote this piece in her younger years, and, when first printed, had carried it no farther than the marriage of the hero of the poem, but, at the request of her friends, she added two books, to include the relation of Joseph's discovery of himself to his brethren; the composing of which, as it is said, was no more than the employment of three or four days. This additional part, which was her last work, was published but a few weeks before her death.

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This great event, the preparation for which she had made fo much the bufiness of her life, befell her, according to her wish, in her beloved recess. She enjoyed an uncommon ftrength of constitution, and had passed a long series of years with fcarcely any indisposition severe enough to confine her to her bed'. But about half a year before her'decease she was attacked with a disorder which seemed to herfelf, as well as to others, attended with danger. Though this disorder, as she expressed herself to one of her most intimate friends, found her mind not quite so serene as usual, yet when, by devout contemplations on the atonement of our bleffed Redeemer, she had fortified herself against that fear and diffidence, from which the most eminent piety may not always be fecure in that most solemn hour, she experienced fuch divine fatisfaction and transport, that the faid, with tears of joy, " she knew not that she had ever felt the like in all her life." After this threatening illness, Mrs. Rowe recovered her usual good state of health; and though at the time she was somewhat advanced in age, yet her exact temperance, and the calmness of her mind, encouraged her friends to flatter themselves with a much longer enjoyment

enjoyment of fo valuable a life than it pleased heaven to allow them. On the day in which she was seized with that distemper which in a few hours proved mortal, she seemed to those about her to be in perfect health and vigour, and in the evening she conversed with all her wonted vivacity, after which she retired to her chamber. At about ten o'clock her servant, hearing some noise in her mistress's room, ran thither instantly, and sound her on the floor speechless, and in the agonies of death. Medical assistance was called, but in vain, and she expired a few hours afterwards, on the Lord's day morning, Feb. 20, 1736-7.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

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A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUS-TOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF EASTERN TARTARY.

TARTARY, a very extensive country of Asia, extends from east to west above four thousand miles, and its greatest width is about nine hundred and sixty miles. This vast region is divided into two great parts, the one eastern, and the other western Tartary.

Eastern Tartary, the manners and customs of whose inhabitants we are now to describe, is bounded on the west by western Tartary; on the north by Siberia; on the east by that part of the oriental ocean called the Tartarian Sea; on the south by the same sea, the kingdom of Korea, and the Yellow Sea, which separates it from China. This country is divided into three great governments, all subject to the Chinese, viz. Shing-yang, Kurin-ula, and Tsitsikar.

The government of Shin-yang contains all the antient Lyau-tong or Quan-tong, the lands of which are very fertile, producing abundance of wheat, millet, vegetables, and cotton, as well as pasture for great herds of sheep and oxen. They have but little rice, but plenty of fruit, such as apples, pears, filberts, and chesnuts, even in their forests. This country was the original seat of the Tartar tribe of the Manshurs, who have now been long the masters of China.

The government of Kurin-ula abounds in millet and oats, with

with a fort of grain unknown in Europe, being fomething between wheat and rice. But the plant most esteemed, and which draws a great number of herbalists into these deserts, is the gin-seng, called by the Manshurs orbota, that is, the chief or queen of plants. It is highly valued for its virtues in curir g feveral difeases, and all decays of strength, proceeding from excessive labour of body and mind. For this reason it has ever constituted the principal riches of Eastern Tartary.

The Yu-pi Tartars, who inhabit a part of this country, fpend all the fummer in fishing: one part of what they catch is laid up to make oil for their lamps, another ferves for their daily food, and the rest, which they dry in the sun, without falting, for they have no falt, is laid up for their winter's provisions, by which both men and cattle are supported when the rivers are frozen. Notwithstanding this diet, these people appear to be possessed of a great degree of strength and vigour. Their clothes consist of the skins of fish, which, after dreffing and dying of three or four colours, they shape and sew in so delicate a manner, that one would imagine they made use of filk instead of thongs cut out of the skin itself. When the rivers are frozen, their sledges are drawn by dogs trained for the purpose, and which are highly valued.

The third government is that of Thithkar, the inhabitants are great hunters, dexterous archers, and pay their tribute in fable skins, each family being affessed two, three, or more Ikins every year, according to the number of able persons of which it confists.

This province is inhabited principally by three forts of Tartars, the Manshurs, the Solons, and the Taguri, of whom the first are the principal persons. The Manshurs, who inhabit this part of Eastern Tartary, are called by the Russians Bogdey; and the Emperor of China, who is a Manshur, is entitled Bogdoy Khan. They have neither temples, nor idols, nor regular worship, but what is offered to the Emperor of Heaven. They pay to their ancestors a veneration mixed with Superstition; and some of them, since their refidence in China, have joined the idolatrous fects: but they are mostly attached to their old religion, which they reverence as the basis of their empire, and the source of their

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prosperity. The Taguri are a large robust people, not very numerous: they live in huts, and cultivate grain: their cattle are principally horses, dromedaries, oxen, cows, and sheep. They make much use of their oxen for riding.

The dress of the Solons is a short jacket of wolves' skins, with a cap of the same; and they have long cloaks made of fox or tiger's skins, to defend them against the cold. They hang their bows upon their backs, their women ride on

horseback, drive the plow, and hunt.

The garrison of Tsitsikar, the capital of the province, consists of Manshurs, but the inhabitants are mostly Chinese. According to their own account they are all shammams, or conjurors, and invoke the devil with frightful cries. They give their dead two burials, first leaving a hole at the top of the grave, to which the relations daily bring victuals, conveying it to the mouth of the deceased with a spoon, and leave drink, in small tin cups, standing round the grave. This ceremony lasts for several weeks, after which they bury the body deeper in the ground.

They live in-houses made of earth, covered with reeds, somewhat like the thatched cottages in Europe. The walls within are plaistered with lime. In the middle stands a pillar with the entrails of beasts wound about it, and by them are hung a little bow and arrows, pikes, and other arms: to all these, from time to time, they bow and prostrate them-

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Their houses are neither divided into chambers, nor furnished with upper rooms; about one-half is taken up by a bench, which runs round the walls, about an ell high and two broad, covered with red mats. Under the bench there passes a chimney or funnel, so that the fire being made at one side of the door, the smoke enters the sunnel, and passes out at the other side; and those who sit on the bench on the day, and lie on it at night, find benefit from the warmth.

On the eastern coast of Tartary, in sitty-one degrees and a half north latitude, and nearly a hundred and forty degrees east longitude, is a fine bay, named by M. La Pérouse Baie de Castries. The country around is very mountainous, and so covered with wood, owing to the luxuriance of vegetation,

as to form one immense forest.

The inhabitants of this country are very inferior, in height, strength, and regularity of features, to those who live in the island of Tchoka, or Segalien, which is directly opposite, and from which they are separated only by a strait not more than ten or twelve leagues across.

There is not, perhaps, any where a race of people more feebly conflituted, or whose features are more different from those forms to which we attach the idea of beauty; their middle stature is below four feet ten inches, their bodies are lank, their voices thin and feeble, like those of children, they have high cheek-bones, small blear eyes placed diagonally, a large mouth, flat nose, short chin, almost beardless, and an olive-coloured skin, varnished with oil and smoke. These differences in the constitution of the two people seem to point out an essential difference of race, since they live in the same climate, and there is a striking analogy, or rather scarcely any difference in their manners and modes of life.

The women are ugly, with very little of that characteristic mildness of countenance which usually, at first sight, distinguishes their sex. They are held in great esteem by their husbands, and are not obliged to perform any out-door work, their whole cares are limited to the cutting and sewing their clothes, disposing of their sish to be dried, and taking care of their children, to whom they give the breast till they are three or four years of age.

The female fex enjoy no small degree of confidence among them. The men never conclude a bargain without first confulting their wives; the pendent silver ear-rings, and copper trinkets, are peculiarly reserved for their wives and daughters.

The men and boys are clothed with a waistcoat of nankeen, or with the skin of a dog or fish, cut in the shape of a waggoner's frock. If it reach below the knee they wear no drawers; if it do not, they wear drawers which fall as lowas the calf of the leg.

The dress of the women is somewhat different; they are wrapped up in a large nankeen dress, or salmon's skin, which they have the art of perfectly tanning, and rendering extremely supple. This dress reaches as low as the anklebone, and is sometimes bordered with a fringe of small copper ornaments, which make a noise similar to that of small bells.

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years, tion.

These people, as well as those of the Segalien island, appear to acknowledge no chief, and are subject to no regular form of government. The mildness of their manners, their respect for old age, their reciprocal affection, and their tenderness for their children, afford a highly interesting spectacle, and seem to prevent all the inconveniences of anarchy, or of the want of subordination. M. La Pérouse says, "that it is impossible to speak of the religion of this people, having never seen either temples or priests, but some rudely carved sigures, perhaps idols, suspended from the cieling of their cottages: they represented children, arms, hands, and legs; these, however, which we took for idols, might perhaps serve only to call in remembrance a child devoured by bears, or some hunter wounded by animals."

In faluting strangers, these people bend their body forwards, and, to flew more than ordinary respect, they kneel, and bow their head almost so as to touch the ground. "There is not," fays M. La Pérouse, " in any part of the world, a tribe of better men to be found. The chief, or oldest man, came to receive us on the beach, accompanied by some other of the inhabitants. In faluting us he proftrated himself to the earth, and afterwards conducted us to his cabin, where were his wife, his daughter-in-law, his children, and grand-children. He caused a neat mat to be spread, upon which he invited us to sit down; and a small grain, with which we were unacquainted, was put with some salmon into a copper upon the fire, in order to be offered to us." This grain came from the Manshur country. which is at the head of the river Segalien, the inhabitants of which have immediate communications with the Chinese.

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The people at the Bay of Castries call themselves of the nation of Orotchys; they trade with the people living up the banks of the river Segalien, and, in exchange for oil, dried fish, and some skins, they bring back the grain to which we have alluded, nankeens, &c. In their journeys they dress their victuals by a fire made on the sand, at the edge of

^{*} See a Voyage round the World in 1785, and the three following years, by J. F. G. De La Pércuse, 3 vols. Svo. Johnson. 1799, second edition.

Vol. II. P. the

the sea, making use of an iron kettle, suspended on a hook of the same metal, from a triangle formed by three pieces of wood tied together. This mode of dressing food is commonly practised by the people called the gypsies of this country.

The village of Orotchys is composed of four cabins, firongly and neatly built, the inhabitants of which live in perfect harmony and confidence. When one of the families takes its departure on a voyage, or journey of fome length, the proprietors put planks before the door of the house, to prevent dogs from entering it, and then, without anxiety, leave it full of their effects. "We were," fays M. La Pérouse, " foon to perfectly well convinced of the inviolable fidelity of these people, and their almost religious respect for property, that we left our facks, full of stuffs, beads, iron tools, and, in general, every thing we used as articles of barter, in the middle of their cabins, and under no other feal of fecurity than their own probity, without a fingle instance of their abusing our extreme confidence; and on our departure from this bay, we firmly entertained the opinion, that they did not even suspect the existence of such a crime as thest."

Every cabin was furrounded with a drying place for falmon, which remain upon poles, exposed to the heat of the fun, after having been smoked round the fire which is in their cabin; the women, who are charged with this operation, take care, as soon as the smoke has penetrated the fish, to carry them into the open air, where they acquire the hardness of wood.

At the Bay of Castrics, as well as in the island of Segalien, the people wear a ring on the thumb, made of lead or bone, which serves as a guard in cutting and stripping the salmon with a sharp edged knife, which they all carry hung to a girdle.

On some of the skirts of the village are seen tombs, which are larger and better built than the houses: each of them enclose three, sour, or sive biers, of a neat workmanship, ornamented with Chinese stuffs, some pieces of which are brocade. Bows, arrows, lines, and, in general, the most valuable articles belonging to these people are sufpended in the interior of the monuments, the wooden door

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of which is closed with a bar; supported at its extremities

by two props.

Although no external difference feems to exist between the inhabitants, yet the same cannot be said of those who are dead, whose ashes repose in a style of greater or less magnificence, according to their wealth; it is probable that the labour of a long life would fearcely defray the expence of one of these sumptuous mausolea, which will, however, bear no comparison with the monuments of more civilized The bodies of the poorest inhabitants are exposed in the open air, on a bier placed upon a stage, supported by They all appear to hold their dead in great veneration, and to employ the whole of their industry and ingenuity in procuring them an honourable burial. They are interred with their clothes on, and the arms and implements that they made use of when alive; and it would, probably, be esteemed facrilege to take any of these away,

THE ANTIENT AND MODERN HISTORY OF NATIONS.

CHINA.

(Concluded from page 101.)

THE empire of China was now to be shared between A. the Song, or fouthern Chinese, and the Moguls. It had been agreed upon, that the province of Honan should be delivered up to the Song as foon as the war was finished. But they, without waiting for the expiration of the term, or giving Oktay notice of their proceedings, introduced their troops into some of the considerable Mogul cities. On this the Mogul general resolved to attack them, and, repatting the Whang-ho, cut to pieces part of the garrison of Lo-yang, while they were out in fearch of provisions, The Song emperor now defired a continuance of peace, which, however, did not accord with the views of Oktay.

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who, at the head of the Moguls, made great progress in the province of Huquang, where he took feveral cities, and put vaft numbers to the fword. In the year 1236 they introduced paper or filk money. The Moguls in the next year received a confiderable check before the city of Gantong. They then laid fiege to Lu-chew, furrounded it with a rampart of earth, and a double ditch; but the Chinese general ordered their entrenchments to be filled with immenfe quantities of herbs fteeped in oil, to which he fet fire, while he that stones upon the enemy from a tower seven stories high; at the same time a vigorous fally was made, and the Mogul army being thrown into diforder, were obliged to abandon the fiege, and retire northwards.

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From 1239 to 1246, the Moguls were unable to make any progress; but upon the death of the Chinese general, Meng-kong, they renewed the war with more vigour and fuccess than ever for several years. In 1259 they laid siege to Ho-chew, a strong city, to the west of Peking, defended by Vang-kyen, and a numerous garrison. The fiege continued from February till August, when the Moguls made a general affault in the night. They mounted the walls before the governor had intelligence of it, but were foon attacked with the utmost fury. The Mogul emperor, Meng-ko, himfelf came to the scalade; but his presence was not sufficient to overcome the valour of Vang-kyen. At the fame time, the fcaling-ladders of the Moguls were thrown down by a ftorm, upon which a terrible flaughter enfued, and among the rest fell the emperor himself. Upon which they raised the fiege, and retired to Shen-fi.

. Hupilay succeeded to Meng-ko, and laid siege to Vuchang-fu, a city near the capital of the Song empire. The relief of this city was committed to a man destitute of conrage and talents, and who, to obtain a peace, entered into a treaty, by which he engaged the Song empire to pay an annual tribute of a hundred thousand pounds, and likewise to acknowledge the fovereignty of the Moguls. This treaty proved the ruin of the empire; for when the Mogul emperor found the terms not fulfilled, he determined to revenge himself on the Song for their treachery, published a mas nifesto

nifelto against them, and, in 1268, the war was renewed. The Mogul army amounted to three hundred thousand men, but, notwithstanding their numbers, little progress was made for three years. Syan-yang and Fanching cities, of the province of Sechew, had been befieged for a long time ineffectually. In the beginning of 1273 they planted large engines against the walls of Fanching, and prefently made a breach in them. After a bloody conflict the fuburbs were taken; and foon after the Moguls made themselves masters of the gates of the city. Nevertheless, a Chinese officer, with only a hundred soldiers, refolved to fight from street to street, which they did with the greatest obstinacy, killing vast numbers of the enemy; and both parties are faid to have been fo far overcome with thirst, that they even drank human blood to allay it. The Chinese set fire to the houses, that the great beams, falling down, might embarrass the way of their pursuers; but at length, being wearied out, and filled with despair, they put an end to their own lives. After the destruction of Fanching; Syan-yang, and some other cities, soon furrendered.

The Moguls continued their conquests, took Nanking, and marched towards Hang-chew-su, the capital of the Song empire. Peace was then proposed, but rejected by the Mogul general, in whose hands the empress was constrained to commit herself with her infant son. This submission did not put an end to the war. Many of the chief officers swore to rescue the empress from the hands of her enemics. They raised an army, attacked the city where the young emperor Kong-tsong was lodged, but without success; after which they raised one of the brothers to the throne, who took upon him the name of Twon-tsong. This dignity he enjoyed but a short time, being obliged, in the year 1278, after enduring many hardships, to retire into a desert island, on the coast of Quang-tong, where he died, in the eleventh year of his age.

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Notwithstanding the progress made by the Moguls, vast territories still remained to be subdued, before they could be considered as masters of the Chinese empire. On the death

of Twon-tsong, therefore, the mandarines raised his brother, Te-ping, to the throne. His army, consisting of nearly two hundred thousand men, ignorant of the art of war, was deseated by twenty thousand Mogul troops. Nor was the fleet more successful; for being thrown into consusion by that of the Moguls, and the emperor in danger of falling into their hands, one of the officers, taking him upon his shoulders, jumped with him into the sea, where they were both drowned. Most of the mandarines followed this example, as did also the empress and minister, all the ladies and maids of honour, and multitudes of others, inasmuch that a hundred thousand people are supposed to have perished on that day. Thus ended the Chinese race of emperors; and the Mogul dynasty, known by the name of Twen, commenced.

Though no race of men ever existed more remarkable for cruelty than the Moguls, yet the emperors of the Ywen dynasty were not, in any respect, worse than their predecesfors. On the contrary, Hupilay, called by the Chinese Shi-tsu, who was the first emperor of that race, endeared himself so much to the people, that the reign of his family is ftyled by the Chinese, the wife government. This he accomplished by paying strict regard to their antient laws and customs, by the mildness of his government, and by his attention and encouragement to learned men. In 1280 he employed some mathematicians to fearch for the source of the river Whang-ho, which, at that time, was unknown to the Chinese themselves. In four months they made the discovery, and drew a map of it, which they prefented to his Majesty. A treatise on astronomy was, by his order, published in the same year. And, in 1282, he brought together all the learned men of the empire, to examine into the state of literature, and to take measures for its advancement.

Soon after his accession he fixed his residence at Peking, where being informed that the barks, which brought to court the tribute of the southern provinces, were obliged to come by sea, and often suffered shipwreck, he caused that celebrated canal to be cut, which is at present one of the wonders of the Chinese empire. It reaches from Canton to

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Peking, and thus forms a communication between the fouthern and northern provinces.

During the reign of Shi-tsu he formed the design of reducing the islands of Japan, and the kingdoms of Tonquin and Cochin-China; but these enterprises sailed, with the loss of a hundred thousand men. The throne continued in this samily till the year 1367, when Shun-ti, the last of that dynasty, was driven out by a Chinese, named Chu, who assumed the imperial title under the name of Hong-vu, and thus put an end to the Ywen government.

Hong-vu and his successor drove the Moguls beyond the great desert, which separates China from Tartary. They continued, notwithstanding, to make incursions upon the empire till 1583, when vast numbers of them were cut to

pieces by the Chinese troops.

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The twenty-first dynasty of Chinese emperors, founded in the year 1368, continued till 1644, when they were again expelled by the Tartars. The last Chinese emperor was Whey-tfong, who ascended the throne in 1628. He found himfelf at once engaged in a war with the Tartars, and attacked by a number of rebels in the different provinces of his empire. The former were foon vanquished; but the latter, headed by Chang and Li, two generals, who agreed to divide the empire between themselves, became truly formidable. Li-laid fiege to Kay-fong-fu, the capital of Honan, but was repulsed with loss. He renewed it fix months after, but the belieged chose rather to feed on human flesh than furrender. The imperial forces coming to its affiftance, attempted to destroy the rebels at once, by breaking down the banks of the Yellow River; but the rebels escaped to the mountains, while the city was completely overflowed, and three hundred thousand inhabitants perished.

The emperor finding himself overpowered by the rebels, deserted by his subjects, betrayed by those in whom he had placed the greatest considence, and preferring death to the disgrace of falling into the hands of his enemies, returned with his empress, whom he tenderly loved, and the princess, their daughter, into the garden. His grief was so great that he was unable to utter a single word. After a few silent

embrace

embraces the empress hanged herself on a tree. Her hus-band staid only to write these words on the border of his vest; "I have been basely deserted by my subjects; do what you will with me, but spare my people." He then cut off the young princess's head with one stroke of his scymitar, and hanged himself on another tree, in the seventeenth years of his reign. His prime minister, queens, and cunuchs sollowed his example. And thus ended the Chinese monarchy, to give place to that of the Tartars, which has continued ever since.

The whole empire submitted to the usurper Li, except prince U-san-ghey, who commanded the imperial forces in the province of Lyau-tong. This brave prince, finding himself unable to cope with the usurper, invited the Tartars to his affistance; and Isong-te, their king, immediately joined him with an army of eighty thousand men. Upon this Li marched directly to Peking, plundered and burnt the palace, and then fled with immense treasures. The young Tartar monarch was immediately declared emperor of China, his father, Tsonte, having died almost as soon as he set foot in that empire.

The new emperor, Shun-chi, conferred upon U-fan-ghey the title of king, and affigned to him the capital of Shen-st for his residence. This, however, did not prevent him from repenting of his error in calling in the Tartars, or, as he used to say, "in sending for lions to drive away dogs." In 1674 he formed a very strong alliance against them, and would, probably, have prevailed, had his allies been saithful; but they deserted him one after another, which so affected him that he soon after died.

During this space there had been some resistance made to the Tartars in many of the provinces. Two princes, of Chinese extraction, had, at different times, been proclaimed emperors; but both of them were overcome and put to death. In 1682 the whole empire was so effectually subdued, that the emperor, Kang-hi, successor to Chun-chi, determined to visit Tartary, his native dominions, in order to take the diversion of hunting. This practice he continued for several years. He was a great encourager of learn-

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ing and the christian religion, in favour of which he published a decree in 1692. In 1716, however, he revived some obsolete laws against the christians; and in the next reign christians of all denominations, not excepting even those of the Imperial race, were persecuted; the Jesuits were banished into Ma-kau, a little island inhabited by the Portuguese, but subject to China. Since which we have no authentic particulars relating to Chinese history.*

* Yau-bofu, Chi-hoang-dut, Kit-nas, Kit-baboi.*

Mog-beto, Song-adkei, Ch-atfor Tar-asfo.

These memorial lines will serve as a summary to the foregoing history. YAU we have confidered as contemporary with Johna, in the year B. C. 1445. In 213, A.D. CHI-HOANG ti having built the great wall, endeavoured to effect a complete revolution in the government. The Kiran fublued part of the empire, and established their own power in 916. The devastation of the Kitan obliged the Chinese to call in the assistance of the eastern Tartars, who, in 1117, founded for themselves an empire under the name of the Kin government. The Moduls, or Western Tartars, after twenty-four years of dreadful war and carnage, deftroyed the dom nion of the .Kin, in the year 1234. After which the whole empire was divided between the Song, or fouthern Chinese; and the Moguls, who made war with the most horrible ferocity upon each other till 1278, when the Song dominion was defroyed. The Moguls maintained their power until they were driven back to Tartary by Chu, a Chinese, who ascended the throne of his ancestors in 1367. After this China was governed by its own emperors till 1644, when they were again expelled by the TARtars, who have kept possession of the government to this day.

* See Vol. I. p. 30 to 34.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

On Taste, Literature, and the Art of Composition.

CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO

HIS SON.

LETTER IX.

My dear George,

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AVING already confidered the origin and division of figures, and having also treated of metaphors at large, I now proceed to confider the byperbole, and other figures.

The hyperbole confifts in magnifying objects beyond their just proportion: so we call a "tall man or woman" a "fteeple."

a "fteeple." This hyperbole confifts in the word, and is named a trope; but some confist in the thought, though this kind cannot be easily distinguished from the other: as, "he runs swifter than the wind," "it is as white as snow," &c. Hyperboles are among the favourite figures of young authors, whose imaginations are generally warm, and therefore love excess and exaggeration; for this reason they are frequently used also by the eastern writers. We have many instances of this figure in the scriptures, as, "a land flowing with milk and boney:" "rivers of tears run down my cheeks." The apostle John uses a very strong one at the end of his gospel: "And there were also many other things which Jesus did, which if they were written every one, I suppose the world itself would not contain the books that should be written,"

This kind of figure ought not to be used too frequently, otherwise it has a great tendency to render the composition. frigid; it should always be the product of the patitions, and ought never to be used till the reader is prepared for it. If we have it when cool, it is of all things the most frigid. We have a very ftrong instance of the unhappy use of this figure in Shakespear, where Cassius, speaking of the ambition and tyranny of Julius Cæfar, fays, "Why, man, he doth bestride the narrow world like a Colossus, and we petty men walk under his huge legs, and peep about." The figure is bold, indeed, but the circumstances of the speaker. are totally adverse to the use of such a figure. Those hyperboles are best, tays Longinus, that have neither the appearance nor air of hyperboles; and this never fails to be the case with those which, in the heat of passion, flow out amidst fome grand circumstances. His whole section on this figure is, indeed, a mafterpiece of criticism.

The next figure I shall consider, is personification, or the assertion of life and action to inanimate objects. This is a very bold figure; for what can be more so than the addressing ourselves to inanimate beings? But when any thing has made a strong impression upon the imagination, we form an acquaintance, and consider it as our neighbour, so to converse with it sometimes as with a person. Whenour passions are moved, we find not only persons, but ina-

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nimate objects, and the passions : e. g. love, hope, joy, and even those that mankind have the least inclination to be acquainted with, e. g. anger, terror, refentment, &c. are frequently personified. This figure, when properly managed, therefore, has a very good effect. There are, however, different degrees of personification: the lowest kind is when we ascribe the properties of living creatures to things without life; e.g. "The ground is thirfty," " ambition is reftlefs," " avarice is infatiable," "the fea rages," "favour is deceitful." These are used in common discourse. This degree of it is indeed a natural act of the mind; for if a man fprains his ancle, or breaks his toe against a stone, before he has time to reflect, how ready is he to reprove or blame it: fo when one is used to stay long in a house, or walk in a grove, &c. he can scarcely leave them without considering them as old friends, and bidding them a formal farewel, especially if he is never to see them again. This strong impression may account, in some measure, for the worship which was paid by the heathens to inanimate beings; when the poets had represented inanimate objects with the properties of animal life, then to worship them was a simple and eafy transition. Virgil affords us a good instance of this personification:

" Aut conjurato descendens Dacus ab Istro."

This is infinitely more beautiful than if it had been thus:

" Aut conjuratus descendens Dacus ab Istro."

Sometimes, however, inanimate beings are made to act, as if they were possessed of life; and this is a higher degree than the former. Thus Cicero, in his oration for Milo: "Aliquando gladius nobis ad occidendum hominem ab ipsisporrigitur legibus." The late Bishop Sherlock gives us an instance of this figure in his fermons, where he compares Mahomet and our Saviour, which is truly sublime:

"Go to your natural religion; lay before ber Mahomet and his disciples arrayed in armour and in blood, riding in triumph over the spoils of thousands and ten thousands, who fell by his victorious sword; show her the cities which he set in slames, the countries which he ravaged and destroyed, and the miserable distress of all the inhabitants of the earth,

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When she has viewed them in this scene, carry her into his retirements; show her the prophet's chamber, his concubines and wives; let her fee his adultery, and hear him alledge revelation and his divine commission, to justify his oppression and his luft. When she is tired with this prospect, then shew her the blessed Jesus, humble and meek, doing good to all the fons of men, patiently instructing both the ignorant and the perverse. Let her see him in his most retired. privacies; let her follow him to the Mount, and hear his devotions and supplications to God. Carry her to his table to view his poor fare, and hear his heavenly discourses. Let her fee him injured but not provoked; let her attend him to the tribunal, and confider the patience with which he fuffered, and endured the scoffs and reproaches of his enemies. Lead her to his cross, and let her view him in the agonies of death, and hear his last prayer for his perfecutors: " Father forgive them, they know not what they do." When Natural Religion has viewed both, ask which is the prophet of God? But her answer we have already had, when the faw part of this scene through the eyes of the Centurion, who attended at the crofs: by him the spake, and faid, "Truly this was the Son of God!" Vol. I.

Homer, the father and prince of poets, personifies every thing. Thomson uses this figure very properly. Milton likewise affords a very fine instance of this, when speaking of Eve's eating the forbidden fruit:

In pangs, and Nature gave a second groan,
Sky low'r'd, and mutt'ring thunder, some sad drops
Wept at completing of the mortal sin
Original."

Other examples may be produced from the same author.

"Oh! unexpected flroke, worse than of death, Must I then leave thee Paradise?"

"So faying, her rash hand, in evil hour Forth reaching to the fruit, she pluck'd, she ate, Earth selt the wound, and Nature from her seat, Sighing through all her works, gave signs of woe That all was lost." for

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The first rule with respect to the prosopopæia, or personification, is, that it should never be introduced except in the glow of passion.

Secondly. It should be an object of dignity that is perfonified. Mr. Pope is faulty in this respect, in his epistle from Abelard to Eloisa, where he makes Eloisa address herfelf thus:

"Dear fatal name, rest ever unreveal'd,
Nor pass these lips in holy silence seal'd;
Hide it my heart within that close disguise,
Where mix'd with God's his lov'd idea lies;
Oh! write it not my hand, the name appears
Already written, wash it out my tears."

Here she first personifies the name, which may be allowed, as the name is taken to represent the person; next she addresses her own heart, which may also pass, because the heart is often, by a figure, taken for the whole soul; but when she goes on to personify the hands, &c. the sentiment sinks; she does not, however, stop here, but even personifies her tears; this last circumstance, to which also a kind of epigrammatic turn is given, is altogether unworthy of such a charming performance. This sigure can scarcely be admitted into prose, unless when the passions are greatly agitated. Cicero has, indeed, attempted it in all its kinds; but not-withstanding his exalted genius, it may be questioned whether he has succeeded so well in this as in the other parts of his orations.

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The next figure I shall mention is, apostrophe, or an address to a person absent or dead as if present. This is also a passionate figure, but it requires a less effort of the imagination than the prosopopeeia. It is more natural to imagine an absent or dead friend to be present, than to suppose inanimate beings endowed with life. We have an example of this figure in the address of Æneas to his dead father.

"Hic pelagi tot tempostatibus actus, Heu! genitorem, omnis curæ casusque levamen Amitto Anchisen: hic me pater optime fessum Deseris, heu! tantis nequicquam erepte periclis."

We have another instance in Quinctilian's address to his Vol. II. Q fon:

fon; but there is, perhaps, no where else to be found such an affemblage of beautiful figures, as in the prophecy of

Isaiah, 14th chapter, the 4th to the 21st verse.

" How hath the oppreffor cealed! the golden city ceafed! The Lord hath broken the staff of the wicked, and the sceptre of the rulers: He who smote the people in wrath with a continual firoke, he that ruled the nations in anger, is persecuted, and none hindereth. The whole earth is at rest, and is quiet: they break forth into singing. Yea, the fir trees rejoice at thee, and the cedars of Lebanon, faying, fince thou art laid down, no feller is come up against us. Hell from beneath is moved for thee, to meet thee at thy coming: it ftirreth up the dead for thee, even all the chief ones of the earth: it hath raifed up from their thrones all the kings of the nations. How art thou fallen from heaven, O Lucifer, fon of the morning!"

VISITS TO THE BOTANICAL GARDEN.

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(Continued from page 111.)

RAVELLERS also tell us of lions taken to war and huntings, who, faithful to their matter, only exert their force and courage against his enemies. We read, in the History of the Crusades, that a French knight had tamed one, which followed him every where, and fought by his fide. At his return to Europe, this knight, not being able to embaik his lion in the ship which carried him, the an mal fwam after him, as long as its ffrength would permit, and at length being exhaufted was drowned. Mark Antony had subjected them to the yoke; he was the first man in Rome who harnaffed them to a car. "It was," fays Pliny, "during the civil war, after the battle of Pharfalia. A fymbol of those disastrous times, this prodigy fignified, that noble and generous fouls should fubmit to the yoke. And, indeed," adds he, "Antony drawn by lions, with the actress Cytheris by his fide, was a phenomenon; more monfirous than all the atrocities of the age." . Let

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"Let us now come to the lion of the Menagerie, whose history you particularly defire to know. He was born at Senegal, and, being taken very young, was brought up in the country with a little spaniel of the same age. After fome time, these two animals were given to the director of the India Company, who fent them to France, and made a present of them to the government; they were landed at l'Orient, and arrived at Verfailles on the 28th September, 1788, they were then seven or eight months old, and they were shut up in the same den. Their childhood had not been passed in captivity; free in the house of their master. fed with the crumbs of his table, and equally dividing his careffes, they were bound together with a mutual affection. This friendship between animals of a different species and opposite dispositions is not uncommon, but it is never formed except among those who live with man, and always begins by the common fentiment of his benefits.

" At his arrival in France, the lion was as gentle, as fawning as his friend; no one feared to approach him, and he returned all the carefies which he received; but foured probably by captivity, his original ferocity was not flow in appearing, and entirely unfolded itself with his age: however, faithful to his keeper, he did not cease to shew his gratitude to him. They were afraid of losing him in the process of cutting his teeth; he was the only one of all the lions brought young to the Menagerie who escaped this illness, which is always very dangerous to these animals. He foon experienced another danger; one of his claws grew into the flesh, and would have killed him, had they not performed an operation; the claw was cut, the matter was let out, and the animal recovered; he bore this operation very willingly. His removal to the Botanical Garden, which took place about two years fince, was not attended with greater difficulty; he was put into a great cage, used for removing beafts from one den to another; and his dog, faftened to one of the bars, followed him in the fame cartiage: the same prison received them at their arrival.

"There this noble animal was exhibited in the plenitude of his strength and vigour; he had reached his full growth. and his long captivity had not been able to impair his na-

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tive dignity. His figure was always imposing and majestic; his proud, fiery glance feemed to awe all who approached him. His fize was a medium between the large and middling species of lions. He was fix feet and a half long and three feet two inches high. A thick mane covered his head, and the front parts of his body, which was all nerve and muscle. The hue of his skin, a bright fawn colour on a cark ground, gave additional fire to the expression of his features and to his motions; but through this terrible expreffion was discovered an air of gentleness cultivated by the fense of benefits, and the enjoyments of friendship. His food was horfe-flesh. They gave him about fifteen pounds a day. He took it in his claws, tore it with his teeth, and fwallowed it without chewing. The dog, his companion, eat bread, and gnawed the bones that the lion left tim. Twice in the day, commonly morning and evening, his thundering voice was heard; he then feemed only to wish to give his lungs falutary exercise. If the sky was overcast with thick clouds, he roared several times, and his roarings preceded a ftorm: during the ftorm he was filent, Misfortune had strengthened the tie formed in childhood; deprived of the pleasures of love, he felt those of friendship the more firongly. He lavished on his dog the most tender careffes; the dog received and returned them without fear and without distrust: his natural gaiety, his frank and open air, tempered the grave and folid disposition of the lion. He often threw himfelf upon his mane, and playfully bit his ears. The lion bent down his head, as taking part in his sport. Often he himself invited him to play, by patting him on his back, and preffing him between his paws. Neither the crowd that furrounded him, the new objects continually passing before his eyes; nothing, in short, could take him from the fociety of his dog. When he withed for repose, it was by his side he slept; and, at his waking, he it was whom he wished to see again.

"Their meals alone suspended for a moment this intimacy. Then they separated to receive their several portions, and neither dared to touch the property of the other, or even to covet it with his eyes. He who had done first waited till the other had finished; and it may easily be imagined that

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lion was always the most expeditious. One day the man who served them carelessly threw the portion of meat under the nose of the dog, and the bread under the jaws of the lion. The latter immediately turned towards his companion, who, showing his teeth, forbad him to approach, and swallowed, under his eyes, such a dinner as he had never made in his life. This boldness on the part of the dog is not surprising, when we consider that the friendship of these two animals was fortisted by the very inequality of their strength; and that the weaker had acquired, in moral power, all that the other had lost in physical force to be-

come only his equal.

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"This affecting peace was, however, sometimes troubled! even by those who came to enjoy, and who ought to have respected it. Pieces of bread, thrown through the bars of the den, became almost always a subject of discord. The dog, regarding all that came from the hand of man as property belonging to him without referve, feized it with extreme eagerness. If the lion made a motion, he threw himfelf upon him, and bit his head with fuch fury, that he caused the blood to flow. The lion contented himself with putting afide his unreasonable friend with his paw. Butthese storms were only transient. The lion rarely abandoned himself to anger, and the dog soon recovered from . his passions. But there was in their mutual attachment a remarkable shade of difference, which explains the caprices and humours of one, and the unalterable kindness of the other. Independent on the earth, proud and wild by nature, the lion, become folitary and a captive, had affociated to himself a friend. He loved his friend for his own sake. and was attached to him alone. The dog, equally affectionate, loved him alfo; but before he had given himfelf to the lion, nature had given him to man. Faithful to his instinct, he ran with eagerness to meet him, who, opening the door of his prison, restored him for a moment to liberty. He loaded him with careffes; gaiety sparkled in his eyes, whilft his poor friend, uneafy at his absence, roared in a plaintive tone, walked backwards and forwards along his bars, went to the bottom of his den, looked at the hole where he had got out, walked away, and returned again. Q 3

When he came back, the dog faw again his companion with pleasure; but his last look seemed to say to the gaoler, "It is to please you."

* Some time after the removal of the lion and his dog to the Menagerie of the Museum, the tender bond which united these animals was broken. The dog, who slept on a bench in the den, leaning with his back against a damp 'wall, contracted the mange: this was perceived too late to be remedied, he died. The lion, deprived of his friend, called him inceffantly in difmal roarings; he foon fell into a deep melancholy; every thing difgusted him; his strength and his voice grew weaker by degrees. Apprehensive of his finking, they endeavoured to divert his grief by prefenting him with another dog. One was fought for refembling his friend in shape and colour. When such an one had been found, it was brought before the grating of the den. The lion fixed him with a sparkling eye, fury shone in his whole face, he uttered a tremendous roar, and, with his paws extended, and his claws unfolded, feemed ready to dart forwards. They judged from this fudden and violent passion that they had deceived the instinct of the beaft, and that, in his fury, he only wished to throw himfelf on the person who detained his beloved dog; they did not hefitate to abandon him to him. The dog, thrown into the den, shuddered with dread; he wished to have escaped, but the lion feized him with his paw, and fmothered him. After this unhappy attempt they thought of making no new trials. I was perfuaded that they would be useless. I believed that time would alleviate the grief of the lion; but I did not believe that it would efface his regret. I was in an error; experience has undeceived me. Some one fuggested the idea of accustoming the lion by degrees to the fight of another deg. For this purpose one was placed in a den, separated from that of the lion only by an iron grating. This precaution had the happiest effects. The lion interested himself by degrees in the fate of the dog, and the dog, little by little, familiarized himself to the fight of the lion. I hey did not delay to form a tender friendship, and this friendship lasted till the death of the lion, which happened foon after. It has been published that he did not

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die of hunger, like a philosopher; in truth, he had not been in want of food for some time, but if he could have made himself understood, he would often have complained of its quality. He was fed on horse-flesh, but the flesh of a diseased horse is not very wholesome; and his health was, perhaps, ruined by the bad choice of his aliments. His disorder v as an inflammation of the bowels, which carried him off in three days."

Citizen Toscan had scarcely finished his recital when one of his friends came paft, and took him from us. We quitted him with regret, after thanking him in the most fincere and lively manner. It was too late to turn again towards the Botanical Carden, besides our third excursion had been sufficiently long. We were going out of the garden, when Gustavus said to me: "Do you see that man down there gathering a flower? Why do not the guards call to him? O, he is plucking another. He amuses himself with tearing them! Where are the guards? I should like to tell them of it." "My dear Gustavus, the guards perceive that man gathering flowers as well as you." "Then why do they let him do it?" " Because they know that he is studying botany. Do you fee the magnifying-glass that he holds in his hand? Do you see how he examines the slower that he has just gathered? If he tears it, it is to observe its mude. He counts the number of the stamina; he looks in what class botanists have arranged it. When we shall have examined the vegetables of this garden, perhaps I may pluck fome flowers, to make you observe all their parts. Then the guards will wink at a little theft committed for your instruction."

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(To be continued.)

AN ALLEGORY.

S the morning fun broke over the mountains, covered with the verdure of fummer, an airy form, with shining aspect, and eyes beaming with joy, presented itself before me. I gazed upon her with a mixture of delight and wonder; her brows were encompassed with slowers, her light robe waved as the soft breath of Zephyrus passed ftill over it, and the wore transparent wings of a thousand bril-

She beckoned me to follow her. I obeyed. We passed together along meads besprinkled with flowrets; we paced with feathery seet down the mostly declivity, where, at its margin, a clear and never-resting stream, in soft meanders, wandered. How delicious were the reveries that followed! How mildly did she exercise the task of sascinating my senses! with her I seemed to enjoy more than human selicity; more than mortal repose! I was sometimes lulled into pleasing dreams; sometimes exhibitated even to rapture; still she smiled upon me, and still I worshipped her as the object of my idolatry!

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Together we wandered over hills and plains, through woods fearcely accessible, through vallies silent as the hour of midnight. Often did we pause by the swift-winding brook, or lave, when noon shot downward its sultry beams, in the slow, shallow river. There was no scene, however lovely, to which she did not lead me; no solitude, however

gloomy, which was not enlivened by her presence.

While I gazed earneftly on her beauty, I found that she possessed that the power of perpetually changing. I discovered that she could assume a thousand shapes, and each as pleasing as the former. Happy mortal! thought I, how have I deserved this superlative degree of bliss? How shall I evince my gratitude to the FATES for the kindness they have shewn me?

Long did we enjoy the felicity of mutual confidence. I consulted my bewitching affociate on all occasions, and ever found that she could soften the forrows while she embellished the glooms of mortal existence. When, weary with the fatigue of neutral exertion, I reposed my head upon my pillow; she lulled me, with visions sweet, to slumber. When I awoke, refreshed and cheerful, I met her as my kindest, earliest friend. Her unexhausted store of rich delights made life supportable, and rendered even its cares less burthensome to my imagination. Sometimes when poverty or neglect fixed heavily upon my heart, her smile would dissipate the languor, and her varying powers to please would reconcile me to the world's unkindness. She

She was the blooming child of NATURE; but the was not exempted from the errors of her parent. She was verfatile as the fummer; the was inconstant as the bosom of the ocean! the possessed herself of all my faculties; she subdued my foul; the became a despot, and I was her flave acknowledged. (A 1620) (A 1620) which shot tends by lived

It was now that I first discovered my error! that I learnt the fatal lesson which experience taught me. Every delight began to ficken, every charm to fade. She then affumed another aspect; she led me through a thousand thorny mazes; drew me from the paths of fweet repose; revelled in the power of possessing my faculties; and taught me to feel the force of her dominion. No more did I labour to cultivate my fortune; no longer experience delight in the fober precepts of domestic economy. I was incapable of all those powers which harmonize a tranquil foul, while an enthusiastic fervour supplied the place of reason and of judgment. The provided the war sook and wilder to soome

Day after day my inquietudes augmented, till I became impetuous and impatient. I could not fix my mind to any point, nor devote my affections to any object. I wandered weary and disconsolate; and that same power which had rendered all my former moments brilliant, now darkened every prospect. Melancholy succeeded the most delightful visions, and a dreary desolation seemed to point towards the abyss of inevitable destruction. It was in vain that I endeavoured to escape from my enchantress; I found that in every path the followed me. But how different from her former felf! How changed, how foriorn was my foul, while the triumphed over my feelings to a set tengined

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While I shrunk almost to inanity, she presented to my view a cavern where death with all his terrors feemed to menace me. I beheld the poisoned cup, the gleaming poniard, a grave unhallowed, a memory fullied by despair!-I shuddered! Who pin bonner is the see I and We tried to be

On every fide I thought that friendship wore a new and icy aspect. I marked the frown of a fastidious world; I longed to leave the scene for ever!

While I was rapt in the reveries of my distraction, a form approached me. Her mien was beautifully tranquil; her 日本月代经济 eyes

eyes benignant, and her smile consoling. A stream of radiance marked her path, and seemed to envelope her in a tempered lustre. She smiled upon me, but her smile was placid. She pointed towards a distant valley, where her mansion rose above embowing woods, and bade me to sollow. I trembled! There was something solemnly, awfully impressive in her look and manner; yet so sublimely calm, that the gales seemed scarcely russed by her breath, and the brilliancy of her eyes was like the morning star. Prostrate I sell before her, when she thus addressed me:

" My name is REASON! I am the daughter of Wifdom and Experience; my nurse was Religion; my school the school of stern Adversity! The phantom, the beauteous vision which enticed your youth to tread the dangerous mazes of this world was FANCY; that tyrant of the brain, that ever-varying forcerefs, who beguiles the yielding of their smiles and tears, their pains and pleasures, till her dominion is established, and then leads them into misery and ruin. It is true that FAME has entered into an union with the capricious despot; but how rarely is she the affociate of Pradence or Reflection! She is often the companion of Pleasure, the votary of the Muses, the tutor of Fashion, but, alas! the pupil of Deceit. She will lead her followers from the paths of fober enjoyment; and, when the has shewn them a gay and splendid prospect, she leaves them to encounter all the ftorms of life, and all the frowns of fortune. The distance we

"Then follow me. In my ferene habitation PEACE reigns fecurely. The fages WISDOM and PHILOSOPHY there give their hours to mental labour and fainted refignation. Leave FANCY to the wild enthusiast; let her powers pesses the brain of wandering visionaries." She now stretched forth her hand; its coldness seemed to chill me, and I awoke (for all was but a dream), the slave, the pupil of that power whose influence had produced the vision which appalled me!

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II. DUTIES RELATIVE TO THE SOUL.

MAN, with respect to himself, has three kinds of duties to fulfil; namely, those which regard the foul, those which relate to the body, and those which re-

spect his relative or social capacity.

2. As, in every thing, there are perfections real, and intrinfically inherent, and others which are merely apparent: and as it becomes dangerous to mistake these distinctions, it follows, that one of the principal duties of man is to know himself.

3. Every thing which is beyond our bodily or mental

frength is not within our power.

4. No person is bound to perform any thing beyond his power. A duty is a free action; and to be free, it is neceffary that it should be possible: our general duties therefore admit of some exception.

5. It is impossible to acquire felf-knowledge without instruction: we are therefore bound to procure for ourselves folid and fufficient instruction to enable us to acquire this

knowledge.

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eschurche ar am led ballod tallingstreet 6. The understanding is formed to know what is truth; the more this is perfect, the better it is able to discover it: we ought therefore, as much as possible, to improve our understanding. Makery duan characteristics of

7. No knowledge is more necessary to man than the knowledge of good and evil; this is the knowledge therefore

which we ought chiefly to endeavour to acquire.

8. There are two kinds of ignorance; the one invincible, and the other which may be fubdued. The former is an excuse, but the latter none, for any negligence or failure in

9. The perfections of the understanding are, attention, penetration, reflection, reason, knowledge, invention, and

folidity, on oh on molitain which into ad on at no all 10. One will is more perfect than another, when it acts from from better motives: we ought then to apply ourselves to: correct and bring to perfection our will.

11. The fenses, the imaginations, and the passions may be rendered subservient to our will, we are consequently

bound to suppress these and to subdue them.

12. Our affections are bad when they do not lead us to what reason points out to us as truly good, or when they do not turn us away from things truly evil, which it is our duty to avoid.

DUTIES WHICH RELATE TO THE BODY.

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1. One of the most effential duties with respect to the body, is to avoid every thing that may injure our health and shorten our life.

2. We ought then to abstain from every thing which may be injurious in eating and drinking.

3. We ought to avoid every thing that may wound out

limbs externally, or endanger our fenfual organs.

4. We are bound to do every thing which tends to improve and bring the body to perfection: nothing tends more to this than certain exercises; these therefore it is our duty to practise.

DUTIES RELATIVE TO OTHERS.

We are bound to improve and advance towards perfection the understanding of others; that is to say, to communicate to them a clear and perspicuous knowledge of truth, adequate ideas, correctness in their judgment, and selidity in their arguments.

We ought never purposely to lead any person into error, nor to darken the understanding of any one by prejudice.

We ought to endeavour to perfect the will of others, by communicating to them, as far as we are able, the faculty of choosing what is good, and rejecting what is evil.

It is not possible to choose what is good and reject what is evil without knowing both: it is our duty therefore to assist others in acquiring a knowledge of the distinctions between good and evil.

We ought to be particularly cautious to do no harm to any one, either by words or actions, and not to give them offence offence by bad example, particularly with respect to children.

We are bound also to promote in others the perfections of the body: we ought therefore, as far as we can, to contribute to their health and preservation.

It plainly follows, that we ought to do no ill to others, not to wound or mutilate them, still less to take away their lives.

It is also a part of our duty to endeavour to promote and advance the external condition of others; that is to fay, as far as concerns their means and polletions, and to prevent these from being injured.

This duty extends to the honour of our fellow creatures as far as regards their external condition, which we are bound to advance and promote.

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We are therefore bound to speak and to publish all the good we know of any person, to excuse his faults, and to defend him against those who attack his reputation.

As sentiments of honour and respect are manifested by external acts, we ought to honour our neighbour by those demonstrations which should impress others with a favourable idea of them.

If we happen to hear any person spoken ill of, we ought ourselves never to publish what we have heard, and we ought not to extend the knowledge of it.

He who does any act which may cause imperfections in another person offends him; whence it follows, that we ought not to offend any person in any manner whatever.

There are many kinds of offences, which are more or less considerable in proportion as they lend to promote imperfection; whether in the foul, the body, or the chate.

It is a much greater injury to wound any person in any part of his body, than to take away any part of his property, or to speak ill of him.

A still greater injury it would be to enseable or prevent any of the good qualities of the foul, such as the intellect, virue, &c. although most men, through ignorance, do not essemble these so much as other possessions.

No person can more injule another than he who leads? Vol. II.

him into errors which have an influence upon his conduct, or which prevent his understanding from arriving at the knowledge of useful truths.

The evil arising from any offence is denominated injury; but since we ought not to offend any person, we ought neither to be the occasion of doing them the slightest injury.

If, through inadvertency or otherwise, we are the occafion of any injury to others, we ought to repair it, and to place the person so injured in the same situation he stood in before.

If we ourselves have sustained the injury, we ought to take care that the person who was the cause of it be in a condition to repair it; for if he be not, we ought to be contented with compensation for the half of it, or even remit it altogether.

ODE TO TRUTH.

to the relation in the straight finess on the supplier of

By MASTER J. H. L. HUNT. Late of Christ's Hospital, London.

With robes of light, and beaming eye,
And temples crown'd with day;
O thou, of all the cherub choir,
That boast'st to wake the sweetest lyre,
And chant the softest lay.

By him,* who, mid'ft his country's tears,
Stood moveless to a thousand fears,
And smil'd at racks and death;
By Persia's† turban'd heroes bold,
By all the Spartan chiefs of old
That bow'd thy shrine beneath;

Regulus. on the month of the service the service as the service as

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⁺ The antient Persians were taught three things; to ride, to shoot; with the arrow, and to speak the Truth. Vide Xenophon, Rollin, &c.

By holy Virtue's vestal flame, By laurell'd Honour's stately name, And cheek be-dimpled Love; O lift from thy majestic head The veil that, o'er its treffes spread, Thy fairy fingers wove!

Thee chaste Religion's virgin breast, And Hope with fair unruffled veft, Their lovely fifter hail; Simplicity with lilled crown, And Innocence untaught to frown. And Peace that loves the vale.

The demon that usurps thy day, And casts upon its blemith'd ray The poilon of his tongue; O bid him from thy dazzling fight. Shrink back into eternal night,
His kindred fiends among! miles of tagyanta

telf And in the horrors of his traing ow , noisefiets beat of latel Let Difcord feek his yelling reign, yangagorah enem Medicor Nor haunt the paths ferene good to standaged and While Guilt on ev'ry fullen wind " , san at 1 se Starts pale and trembling from behind to samble His wild and wizard mienous to Sales of I

each other, and respiring reputation in our intercourie with to to Then o'er thy flow'r-enamell'd way ages . How and Shall youth, in artlefs frolic gay, agulas, well doise or ald it av His ruftic lays increase to volve at and rebation While Britain, raptur'd at the found, this many Shouts to her echoing shores around by her half all Truth, Liberty, and Peace!

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By

Attellations.

I declare that the above is my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not yet 16 years of age. days it the way of the state of

J. H. L. HUNT.

I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, that my son, J. H. L. Hunt, J. H. L. Hunt, not yet 16 years of age, has not received any affiftance in the above ode, either by explanation, fuggestion, correction, or in any other way, directly or indirectly.

MAAC HUNT.

To the above is added the selemn attention of his brother, ROBERT HUNT.

FIRST PRIZE ESSAY,

On the Subject for No. 9, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

"To shew by argument and example the absolute necessity of the strictest adherence to Truth on every occasion; and the wicked-ness and meanness of every evasion, equivocation, or mental refervation intended to deceive."

By Master WILLIAM AINGER, Not 16...
Pupil of the Rev. George Burges, of Whittlesea, in the Isle
of Wight.

If, amongst that extensive catalogue of vices which constitute both the scourge and the disgrace of mankind, we endeavour to distinguish which most merits our scorn and detestation, we shall not, perhaps, discover one that is more derogatory to the human character, or more satal to the happiness of society, than salsehood; that monster bread of hellish race," which is, at once, so conspicuous for folly, cowardice, and depravity.

The defire of procuring the efteem and confidence of each other, and acquiring reputation in our intercourse with the world, appears to be a laudable species of ambition, of which sew perhaps are entirely destitute. If, however, we consider that he who violates his veracity is always liable to detection, and that when once discovered he is ever after distrusted and disbelieved, we shall perceive that this desire is only to be accomplished by the strictest adherence to truth on every occasion.

No object can be of greater importance to the welfare of fociety, than that of fecuring the fincerity of its members, fince (as Dr. Johnson elegantly expresses it) "when speech is employed only as the vehicle of falsehood, every man must disunite himself from others, inhabit his own cave,

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and feek prey only for himself." To this pernicious tendency of lying may, perhaps, be principally attributed that contempt and infamy with which it is so generally and so justly regarded; for on no character is there, by universal affent, affixed a greater stigma than that of a known liar. He must renounce all pretentions either to public honour, or private respect; he is ever regarded as an object of suspicion, is despised in prosperity, and abandoned in adversity.

These, however, are not the only inconveniences attendant upon this detestable vice. Deceit is always unprepared against fortuitous circumstances and unforeseen events; her projects are ever unsubstantial in their foundation, and danger and intricacy lurk in all her paths. Though, therefore, he who has recourse to her wiles may experience temporary success, yet he is almost certain in the end to meet his merited punishment and disgrace. Even admitting, however, that by the falsification of our word we could realize our most sanguine expectations, still, let us ask, what advantage or emolument would be able to requite the loss of that inward satisfaction which is ever the concomitant and the re-ward of conscious rectitude?

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If we peruse the early part of English history, the example of Ethelwald, who by his treachery towards Edgar, his sovereign and benefactor, obtained the beautiful Elfrida, may, perhaps, tend still further to demonstrate that the triumph of falsehood is ever transient in its duration. Here, however, pity may exclaim, that the temptation was too great for human frailty; still "human frailty is no excuse for criminal conduct." Perhaps no temptation, however great, can justify a rational being in the facritice of his homour and honesty.

These considerations may, in some degree, tend to evince the turpitude and general inutility of lying. By an examination of Holy Writ, however, we shall also be equally convinced of its wickedness. Much more evident and forcible then must appear the necessity of an invariable and habitual regard to truth, when we perceive that it is no less requisite to our future happiness than to our present welfare.

The Scriptures abound with expressions which might be

Almighty, regarded as a crime of the greatest magnitude. The melancholy sate of Ananias and Sapphina, in particular, furnishes us with a remarkable instance in which this sin so far incurred the divine vengeance, as even to bring down the punishment of immediate death upon the offenders.

Not, however, to direct falsehood alone is this degree of guilt confined. All evalive arts, all paltry subterfuges, discover the same wicked design to deceive. With God, therefore, who "is a God of truth," and from whom no speciousness of appearance can disguise the criminality of the intention, they will, perhaps, be considered as equally deserving of punishment.

Nothing can render a person more ridiculously contemptible, than endeavouring, by ambiguity of language, or reservation of mind, to elude that which he has too much sear of detection openly to disavow. He thereby not only exposes his cowardice, and sliews the little dependence that can be reposed on his honour and probity, but also gives the surest pledge of future and more daring transgressions.

The immortal Czar, Peter of Russia, so justly entitled the Great, was particularly distinguished for his love of truth, and his scorn of every species of art and dissimulation. It is faid, that on an undisguised confession he was generally inclined to pardon even those offences that were most calculated to excite his displeasure. Indeed, in all cases, we shall find that an ingenuous acknowledgment of our faults is the shortest and surest means of obtaining forgiveness. It is, perhaps, the only manner by which we can effectually evince our contrition and our desire of suture amendment, whereas if we deny the fact, or endeavour to conceal it by prevarication, we shew ourselves to be entirely undeserving of pity or indulgence.

Let, then, "the absolute necessity of the strictest adherence to truth on every occasion," be indelibly impressed on the heart of him who is ambitious of performing his duty towards his God, his neighbour, and himself; and let him perpetually bear in mind, "the wickedness and meanness of

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every evafion, equivocation, or mental refervation intended to deceive."

Attellation.

I declare, the above to be my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not 16 years of age.

W. AINGER.

I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, that my pupil, William Ainger (not 16 years of age) has received no affishance in the above composition, either by explanation, suggestion, correction, or in any way, directly or indirectly. I have merely read it over, and added to it this attestation.

Whittlefea, Od. 2, 1800.

G. BURGES.

PRIZE TRANSLATION FROM MASILLON,

By Miss ELIZABETH BANCROFT, aged 13.

Daughter of the Rev. T. Bancroft, of the Vicarage Bolton.

Behold that evidence which influences his mind above all that is the most manifest, and the best established upon the earth. We do not know what is passing in that other world of which men speak to us. O, man! open your eyes now. One doubt alone is sufficient to make you wicked, and all the proofs of religion cannot make you a believer. You doubt the truth of suturity, and you live before-hand, as if there was none! You have only for the basis of your opinion your own uncertainty; and you censure the faith which we profess as a popular error!

But I ask you, on which side is credulity here? Is it on the side of the impious or the believer? The believer rests his expectation of a futurity upon the authority of the Holy Scriptures; that is to say, the only book upon earth which merits any belief; upon the deposition of the apostles, that is to say, just, plain, wonder-working men, who have shed their blood in honour of truth and of religion, to which the conversion of mankind has given a testimony that will continue superior to the efforts of the impious until the end of time; upon the accomplishment of the prophecies, that is

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to fay, the only mark of truth which fraud is not able to imitate; upon the tradition of all ages, that is to fay, upon facts, which, fince the formation of the world, have appeared certain to the greatest men upon earth; to men most confessedly just, to the wisest and most refined part of mankind; in one word, upon proofs that are at least probable. The impious man disbelieves a futurity upon a single doubt, upon a mere suspicion. Who knows it? he asks us; Who has returned again from it? He has no argument sussiciently solid and decisive to oppose to the truth of a suture state. For let him publish it, and we will agree to it. He only suspects that there is nothing after this life, and more than that, he believes it to be so.

But, I ask you, who is the credulous person now? Is it he who has for the foundation of his belief that which is at least probable among men, and most proper to make an impression upon reason; or he who is determined to deny there is any thing in it, upon the weakness of a single doubt? Yet the ungodly man thinks he makes more use of his reason than the believing; he regards us as weak and credulous men, but he considers himself as a superior being, elevated above vulgar prejudices, and one whom reason alone, and not the public opinion, determines. O God! how dreadful thou appearest when thou abandonest the sinner to his ignorance! Thou knowest how to reap glory even from the efforts of thy enemies to oppose it.

But to proceed. Although in the doubt which the ungodly man flarts upon a futurity, things should be equal, and the foolish uncertainties which make him incredulous should be a balance to the solid and evident truths which promise us immortality; I say that, in an equality even of arguments, he ought at least to wish that the sentiment of faith upon the nature of our souls was true; a sentiment which does honour to man, which shews him that his origin is heavenly, and his hopes eternal; he ought to pray that the doctrine of implety was salse; so gloomy a doctrine, and so humiliating for man; which consounds him with the brute creation; which makes him live only for the body; which gives him neither end, nor destination, nor hope;

hope; which confines his doom to a small number of fleeting, unquiet, unhappy days which he passes upon earth; if all things were equal, an exalted mind would rather be deceived in doing itself honour, than in declaring itself for that side which is Ignominious to its existence. What a soul, then, hath the wicked man received; and of what an untoward nature, to prefer believing in so great an inequality of arguments, that his existence will terminate with this life, and to regard himself with complacency as a vile compound of dust, and an associate with brutes? What do I say? What a monster must the impious man be to distrust the common opinion, merely because it is too glorious for his nature; and to believe that the vanity of men alone has introduced it upon earth, and has persuaded them that they are immortal?

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In other respects the wicked man is infatuated, not only because, in an equality of arguments, his heart and his glory ought to decide in favour of faith, but also his own interest. For he has already been asked, what man risks by believing? What will be the lamentable consequence of his credulity if he is deceived? He will live with honour, with probity, and with innocence; he will be gentle, affable, fincere, religious; a generous friend, a faithful husband, and an equitable mafter; he will restrain his passions, which would have occasioned misfortunes in his life; he will abstain from pleasures and from excess, which might have prepared for him an unhappy old age, or a deranged fortune; he will enjoy a virtuous reputation and the esteem of mankind; observe what he hazards. Although aff thould terminate with this life, he will have learnt the feeret of paffing it peaceably and happily: this is the only disappointment which attends it. If there is no eternal recompence, what will he lose by expecting it?" He has loft a few fenfual and momentary enjoyments, which would have foon deferted him, and been fucceeded by difguft, or he would have been tyrannized over by new defires; he has loft the horrid fatisfaction of being, from the first instant he appeared upon earth, cruel, ill-natured, voluptuous, without faith, without morals, without conscience; despised,

despised, perhaps, and disrespected by his neighbours. I cannot conceive here a great misfortune; he again finks into nothing, and his error has no further confequences.

But if there is a future state? But if he deceives himself by refufing to believe it, what does he not hazard? The loss of everlasting blessings, the enjoyment of thy glory, O God! which would make him happy for ever. But this is only the beginning of his miferies; he goes to experience devouring flames, a punishment which is boundless and perpetual, an eternity of horror and rage. Now compare these two conditions; which of them would the wicked man prefer? Will he risk the short duration of a few days? Will he risk a whole eternity? Will he now neglect to do that which ought to be completed to-morrow, or he must be miserable? Will he not fear a futurity, which has no other bounds but eternity, and which will not end but with God himself? Who is that wife man, who, in the same uncertainty, dares waver here? And what name shall we give to the impious man, who having only for his support frivolous doubts, and feeing, on the fide of the believer, authority, examples, prescription, reason, the voice of all ages, the whole world, determines to fland alone on the dreadful fide of unbelief; dies as calmly as if he was to live no more; leaves his everlafting destiny in the hands of chance, and goes calmly to encounter fo great an event? O God! is this a man conducted by undiffurbed reason, or a frantic wretch, who has no other refource but despair? The uncertainty of the impious man is therefore folly, by the very reasons upon which it is supported.

though all thould terminat. Attestation.

SIR.

I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, Elizabeth Bancroft, my daughter, under 13 years of age, has not received any affiftance in the above translation, either by explanation, fuggestion, correction, or in any way directly or indirectly.

THOMAS BANCROFT,

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Vicarage Bolton, Sept. 30, 1800.

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Master Coprise reducted the original equation to this form, is - vi - NOITUIOS SINT da nunecellarily

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MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

By Master W. NIGHTINGALE, under 13. Pupil of Mr. John Taylor, Audenshaw Academy, near nodw forfine ad this wo Manchester.

BY transposition
$$2ax^3 - 3b^2x^2 + b^4 = 0$$

But 10:8:: $b:a = \frac{4b}{5}$

Therefore by fubstitution $\frac{8b}{5} - x^3 - 3b^2x^2 + b^4 = 0$

Then by supposing $b = \frac{8}{5}$, and clearing the equation, we get $x^3 - 3x^2 + \frac{64}{25} = 0$.

Now I find one of the approximate values of x by the method laid down in Dr. Hutton's Course of Mathematics. volume I, page 248, to be + 2.629849, and the other roots will be found to be + 1.188912 and - .818761.

For let c = 2.6298496, and $d = \frac{0.5}{25} = 2.56$, then divide the equation $x^3 - 3x^2 + d$ by x - c, and we shall have $x^2 + c - 3$. $x + c^2 - 3c = 0$, or $x^2 + c - 3$. $x = 3c - c^2$, therefore by completing the square we get $x = \frac{3-c}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{9+6c-3c^2}}{4} = \pm 1.188912$ and ·818761; and the three roots are + 2.629849, + 1.188912, and — .818761 as before.

Attellation.

I declare that the above is my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not more than 12 215-36 5th years of age.

of model of the fire w. NIGHTINGALE, of

The above is absolutely the sole production of said Wm. Nightingale, aged 12.215-365th years. 31 - a noutrape sat seusbord Audensbarw School, Sept. 30, 1800. JOHN TAYLOR.

be eggreen: 65,74604 and - 20,46009.

Master Code in reduced the original equation to this form, $3x^2 - x^3 = 2,56$, which he afterwards unnecessarily transposed, to the form $x^3 - 3x^2 + 2,56 = 0$, and the first root by approximation he found to be 1,188914, and by reduction to a quadratic equation the other roots to be 2,629,849 and -,828763.

Master Baxten observes, that if r is the nearest root by trial, and r + d = x, then the solution will be easiest when r = 1, or when the roots are near to unity, and he reduces the equation to the form $3x^2 - 1$, $6x^3 - 1$, whose roots by Raphson's method of approximation he finds to be ,74367 1,64565 and - ,51172.

Master Earnon makes b = 10 and a = 8, reducing the equation to the form $300x^2 - 16x^3 = 10000$, and supposing x = r + n finds $n = \frac{75r^2 - 4r^3 - 2500}{12r^2 + 12rn - 150r - 75n}$ and making r = 7.4 for the first value, by excluding the terms in which n is in the denominator, finds the first value of n to be 0.03068 nearly, and by substituting this value for n in the denominator finds a nearer value to be 0.030701, and thus his first root is found to be 7.430701, the other roots by reduction to a quadratic to be 16.436575 and -5.11727.

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Master Green transposes the equation unnecessarily to the form $2ax^3 - 36^2x^2 = -6^4$ which he reduces to the form $16x^3 - 300x^2 = 10000$ reduced to $4x^3 - 75x^2 = -2500$, which last is transposed to the form $4x^3 - 75x^2 + 2500 = 0$, of which he finds the first root by Raphson's method to be -5,1171 very nearly, and the other two roots by the reduction to a quadratic equation to be 7,4309 and 16,4361x

Master Surtees makes a = 4 and 6 = 5, and reduces the equation to the form $x^3 - 9.375x^2 = -78.125$, whose roots he finds by Simpson's general theorem to be 3.715357 : 8.2182815 and -2.5586385.

Master Shields makes b = 40 and a = 32, and brings his equation to the form $2ax^3 - 36^2x^2 + 64 = 0$, which he reduces to the form $x^3 - 75x^2 + 4000 = 0$. Then to destroy the second term he makes x = y + 25, and thus produces the equation $y^3 - 1875y = -8750$, whose roots he finds trigonometrically, according to Euler's method, to be 29,72285; 65,74624 and -20,46909,

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES

GIVEN WITH THE NINTH NUMBER.

CLASS I.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

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Subject—"To shew, by argument and example, the absolute necessity of the strictest adherence to Truth on every occasion; and the wickedness and meanness of every evasion, equivocation, or mental reservation intended to deceive."

The first prize has been adjudged to Master W. AINGER, of Whittlesea, aged 15. Attested by the Rev. G. Burges.

To receive a pair of Globes or Rooks, value Three Guineas.

The second to Miss C. LETHBRIDGE, of Madford, near Launceston, Cornwall, aged 14. Attested by her mother.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Master J. GREGORY, of Messes. Palmer's school, Hackney, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Paris, classical tutor. To receive Dr. Mavor's Plutarch.

The fourth to Master MAJOR AINGER, of Whittlesea, aged.

Attested by Rev. G. Burges.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The fifth to Miss JANE LEWIS, of North Buddesley, aged 14. Attested by Mrs. Metcalf, her governess.

To receive Dr. Goldsmith's History of England.

The fixth to Master JOSIAH CONDER, of Messirs. Palmer's school, Hackney, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The seventh to Miss AMELIA MACGREGOR, of Mrs. Green's boarding-school, Gower-street, aged 15. Attested by the Rev. J. G. Macgregor.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The eighth to Miss M. A. ORMSTON, of Leeds, aged 15. Attested by Mr. B. Ormston.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Abridgment of Plutarch.
Vol. II. The

The ninth to Master J. BEDDOME, of Mestirs. Palmer's school, Hackney, aged 13. Attested by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The tenth to Master H. KIRKE WHITE, of Nottingham, aged 15. Attested by his father and fister.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

Miss MARY PARKE, of Mis. Linwood's school, Leicesters and Miss ANNE HUGHES, of Kentish-town, a pupil of Dr. Montucci's, would both have been entitled to prizes, had they not been above the specified age.

Among a great number of candidates, the following are particufarly entitled to COMMENDATION.

Master Thomas Allies, not 16 years, of Mr. Osborn's acdemy, Worcestershire.

Miss Ann Bennett, aged 15, of Portsea, Hants.

Miss Augusta Barclay, aged 16, of Mrs. Smallwood's boarding. school, of Croom's hill, Greenwich.

Mils Emma Britco, aged 15, of Mrs. Green's feminary, Upper Gower-freet, Bedford fquare.

Miss Selina Bourne, aged 13 years and nine months, of Mrs. Pore's school, Crescent, Birmingham.

Master William Brown, aged 13 years and seven months, of Houghton-le-Spring, near Durham.

Master F. Betts, aged 13 years and seven months, of Mr. R. Camfield's academy, Northampton.

Master John Brown, aged 15 years and seven months, of the gram-

mar-school, Barnard Castie. Mils Ann Coxbead, aged 11 years and 10 months, of Mrs. Dent's school, Northampton.

Mil's Elizabeth Ann Chase, aged 14 years and seven months, of Luton, Bedfordfhire. Master John Crosse, aged 14 years, of the Rev. J. Peer's seminary,

Thorp-Arch.

Master John Cox, son of John Cox, Esq. Hermes-street, Pentonville, aged 15 years and fix months.

Master John Curtis, aged 13 years and five months, fon of John Curtis, Eig. Wifbeck, Cambridgeshire.

Mafter William Clayton, aged 14 years, of Harleyford, Bucks. Maffer J. Clarke, not yet 15 years, of Meffrs. Palmer's academy,

Hackney (excluded by having lately received a fecond prize.)

Mils Maria Defter, aged 15 years.

Miss Martha Trinder Dent, aged nine years and nine months, of Mis. Dent's school, Northampton.

Mils Elizabeth Ryland Dent, aged 11 years and 10 months, daugh ter of Mrs. Elizabeth Dent, boarding-school, Northampton.

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Master G. F. Dickson, aged 13, of Mesirs. Palmer's academy; Hackney.

Master George Edwards, aged 14 years and four months, of the grammar school, Barnard Castle.

Mils Mary Fuller, aged 14 years and eight months, of Mrs. Dent's school, Northampton.

Master Thomas Forster, aged 15 years and three months, of the grammar-school, Barnard Castle.

Mis Mary Godwin, aged 11 years, daughter of Thomas Godwin, Esq. Whitworth, near Rochdale.

Miss Maria Hague, aged 13 years and fix months, daughter of Mrs. Hague, Northampton.

Miss A. E. Haden, aged 10 years and five months, of Mrs. Pope's school, Crescent, near Birmingham.

Master John Hird, aged 14 years, of the grammar-school, Barnard Castle.

Matter Joseph Hobson, aged 15 years, of ditto.

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Master Henry William Hentig, aged 13 years and two months, fon of J. W. Hentig, Esq. Hull, Yorkshire.

Miss Eliza Sutton Inman, aged 14 years, of Mrs. Wright's school, Vicarage Brampton.

Miss Harriot Jones, aged 14 years, daughter of John Jones, Esq. Duke-street, Liverpool.

Master B. H. Jones, aged 13 years and fix months, of Messirs. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Matter John Inkersole, aged 13 years, of ditto.

Miss Sarah Linwood, aged 15 years, of Mrs. Linwood's school, Leicester.

Miss Emma Milbourne, aged 12 years and 11 months, of No. 38, Allsop's buildings, Mary-le-bone.

Master Samuel Marsom, not yet 16 years, nephew and pupil of Mr. Osborn, academy, Worcester.

Miss Catharine Noble, aged 15 years and five months.

Mis Mary Ortt, aged 14, daughter of the Rev. Richard Ortt, Bury, Lancashire.

Miss Mary Jane Peyton, aged 11 years and eight months, daughter of William Peyton, Esq. Kentish-town.

Master John Raban, aged 11 years, of Mr. Haddon's academy, Olney, Bucks.

Mils Ann Shaw, aged 13 years and eight months, at Mrs. Dent's school, Northampton.

Master Richard Steele, aged 13 years, of the grammar-school, Barnard Castle.

Master John Smith, under 14 years of age, of Gainsborough Grammar-school.

Master Arthur Shores, aged 12 years, of Mr. Williams's academy, York.

Master R. S. Sutherland, under 15 years of age, of Woburn, Bedfordshire.

Mis Anne Tomlinson, aged 14 years, at Mrs. Else's academy, Newark.

S 2

Master Charles William Thompson, aged-12 years and nine months, at the Rev. Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch, Yorkshire.

Master George Turner, No. 30, Arundel-street, Strand.

Master John Vincent Thompson, aged 15 years and six months, of the Rev. Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch.

Mils Charlotte Ann Wood, aged 14 years, of Mrs. Linwood's school, Leicester.

Mafter William Wood, aged 14 years, of the grammar school, Barnard Castle.

Master George Robert Coofer Wilcocke, aged 13 years, of Messissa Palmer's academy, Hackney.

CLASS II.

SENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECOND SUBJECT.

TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

The first prize has been adjudged to Miss ELIZABETH BANCROFT, of Bolton, in Lancashire, aged under 13. Attested by her father.

To receive Books value One Guinea and a Half.

The second to Master M. C. DUNBAR, of Mr. Flower's academy, Islington, aged 11. Attested by his mother and brother.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Master P. ANSTIE, of Mr. Bicheno's academy, Newbury, Berks, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Henry, French master.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The fourth to Miss HEN. EYRE, of Reading, aged 12 years and four months. Attested by Mr. Loriot, her French master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

The fifth to Miss K. NICHOLSON, of Rochester, aged 12. Attested by Mrs. Maudsley, her aunt and teacher.

To receive the Female Reader.

The fixth to Master JOSEPH DUNN, of Mr. Bicheno's academy, Newbury, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Henry, French master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Lives of Plutarch abridged.

The seventh to Miss MARTHA ATTERSOLL, of Craberce, near Fulham, aged 12. Attested by her mother.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History for Schools.

N

The eighth to Master G. P. BAKER, of Mr. Richeno's academy, Newbury, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Henry, French master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The ninth to Master J. W. ROBERTS, of the seminary Thorp-Arch, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Peers, recor

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

Miss SOPHIA TONGUE, of Mrs. Smallwood's school, would undoubtedly have been entitled to a prize, had she not been above the specified age.

The translations of the following candidates are also deserving of COMMENDATION, and some particularly, considering the age of their authors.

Master James Adams, aged 12 years and nine months, of Stone-house, near Plymouth, Devon.

Mafter William Beddome, aged 12 years, of Meffrs. Palmer's school, Hackney.

Miss Anna Coxe, aged nine years and nine months, of Hampstead-Heath, and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Mis Catharine Clarke, of Burnaby, aged 12 years.

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Miss Susanna Cuming, aged nine years, daughter of A. Cuming, Esq. Stockton.

Master Josiah Conder, aged 11 years, at Messes. Palmer's school, Hackney.

Master William Clarke, aged 12 years, of the Rev. Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch.

Master Francis Coben, aged 12 years and three months, son of Meyer Cohen, Esq. of Southampton-street, Bloomsbury, and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Master Nathaniel Fenn, aged 12 years and fix months, of Messes.

Palmer's school, Hackney.

Miss Martha Gem, aged 11 years, of Mrs. Eve's, Crescent School, Birmingham.

Miss Ann Grob, aged to years, of Kentish-town.

Master Moses Asher Goldsmid, aged 11 years and nine months, son of Asher Goldsmid, Esq. and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Mils Ann Hughes, aged 16, of Kentish town, and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Miss Mary Hampson, aged 12 years and five months, daughter of L. Hampson, Esq. of Lucon, Bedfordshire.

Miss Juliana Hurst, aged 12 years, daughter of W. Hurst, Esq. of Kennington-place, Bath.

Mils Ann Cooper Marsh, aged nine years and two months, of Mrs: Eves's, Crefcent School, Birmingham.

Miss Emma Milbourne, aged 12 years and 11 months, of Allsop's-buildings, New-road, Mary-le-bone, and pupil of A. L. Josse, professor of the French and Spanish languages.

Miss Mary Pattison, aged 11 years and five months, of Stone-house, near Plymouth, Devon.

Miss Sarah Sewel, aged 12 years and a half, of Yarmonth, Norfolk. Master John Surgey, aged 11 years and six months, of Messis. Palmer's school, Hackney.

Miss Margaretta Taylor, aged nine years and three months, nice of Mrs. Hurry, Yarmouth.

Miss Mary Ann Worthy, aged 12 years, at Mrs. Lawrence's, of Highgate.

Miss Jane Williamson, aged 12 years, of Miss Ramsden and Wartnaby's school, Hinkley.

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CLASS III.

ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES FOR THE

The first prize is adjudged to Master WILLIAM NIGHTIN. GALE, between 12 and 13 years of age, of Audenshaw School. Attested by Mr. Taylor.

To receive a pair of Adams's nine-inch Globes, value

Two Guineas and a Half.

The second is adjudged to Master JOHN CODLING, between to and 11 years of age, of Ranworth, in Norfolk. Solemnly attested by his father, who is also his schoolmaster.

To receive Mr. Frend's Algebra.

The third prize is adjudged to Master JOHN BAXTER, between 15 and 16 years of age, of Hull Academy. Attested by Mr. Ashton.

To receive Ludlam's Rudiments of Mathematics.

The fourth prize is adjudged to Master JOHN EADON, of Sheffield Free Writing-school. Attested by Mr. Eadon.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

cation.

The fifth prize is adjudged to Master H. GREEN, aged 13 years, of the seminary Thorp-Arch. Attested by Mr. J. Peers, sector.

To receive Rutler on the Use of the Globes.

The fixth prize is adjudged to Master ROBERT SURTEES, under 15 years of age. Attested by Mr. Anthony Surtees and Mr. John Rutherford, master of Lanchester School.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

And very high Commendation is due to Master Robert Shields for the great skill he has shewn in his trigonometrical solution.

CLASS IV.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES FOR THE SPECIMENS OF PENMANSHIP.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN HER-BERT, aged 12, of Mr. J. Comfield's academy, Guilsbro', near Northampton.

To receive a Book of Penmanship, value One Guinea;

and a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

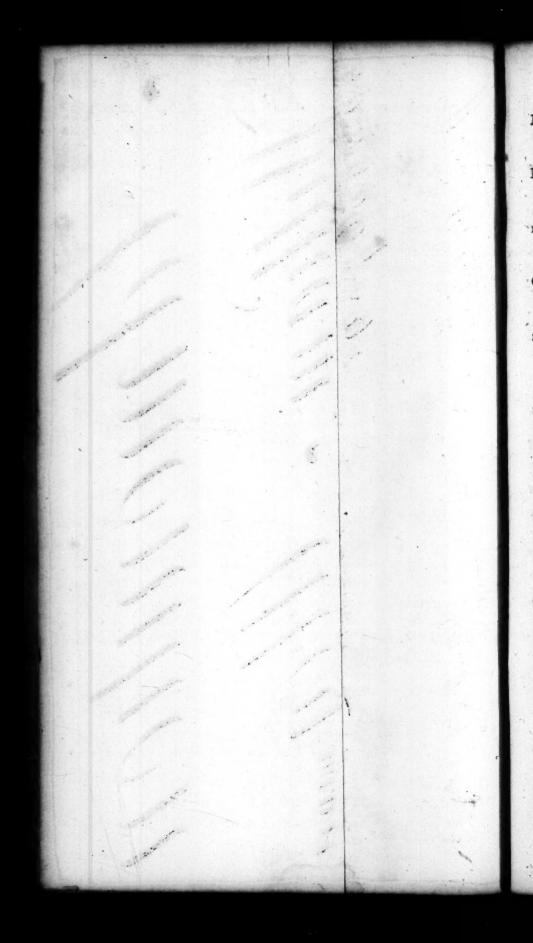
The second prize to Master WILLIAM ABBEY, aged 12, of Mr. Williams's academy, York.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half- :- guinea. The third to Master ISAAC LOVELL, aged 12, of Mr. J.

Comfreld's academy, Guilsbro', near Northampton.

To receive a Silver Pen.

First Duze N.g. 1234567890 Edmuration John Herbert aged 12 Milliam Mollog Laces 12 Mork Madeiny (O Saac Lovell Mind Prize Nig. Aged 12.



George

The fourth to Masser JAMES LAWSON, aged 13, of Mr. Blanchard's academy, Nottingham.

To receive a Silver Pen.

The fifth to Mafter JONAS RENSHAW, aged 11, of Mr. Blanchard's academy, Nottingham.

To receive a Silver Pen.

The fixth to Master JOSEPH HARRIS, aged 12 years and fix months, of Mr. Williams's academy, York.

To receive a Silver Pen.

The feventh to Master J. MERRIDEW, aged 11, of Mr. R. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

To receive a Silver Pen.

The eighth to Master JOHN PRENTICE, aged 12 years and fix months, of Mr. Kitson's academy, Norwich.

To receive a Silver Pen.

The undermentioned deferve our PARTICULAR NOTICE and COMMENDATION. Some of them are little inferior to the fpecimens which have obtained prizes, and others are entitled to notice on account of the extreme youth of their writers.

William Barnes, aged 10 years. (His school or place of residence does not appear on the specimen.)

Robert Briggs, aged 12 years and eight months, of Mr. Ashton's academy, Hull.

William Brown, aged 12, of Mr. Tucker's academy, Tilshead, on the Wiltshire Downs.

George Cooper, aged 13, of Mr. Buck's academy, East Dereham. Thomas Cornish, aged 12 years and fix months, of Mr. White's academy, Kentisbeer, near Cullumpton.

Thomas Crawshaw, aged 10 years and fix months.

Henry Day, aged 13, of Mr. Daniel's academy, Woburn, Bedford-

Matthew Charles Dunbar, aged 11, of Mr. Flower's academy, Islington.

Nathaniel Fenn, aged 12, of Messirs. Palmer's academy, Hackney. Nevil Fry, aged nine, of Mr. Maysield's academy, Loughbro'.

George Hall, aged 14, of Mr. Bishop's academy, Clay-hill, Ensield. William Hughes, aged seven, of Mr. Will's academy, Old Chapelrow, Kentish-town.

Henry William Hutton, aged 13, of the Grammar school, Gainsbro'.

Robert Johnson, aged 12, of Mr. Bruce's academy, Byker West-house, near Newcastle.

William Jones, aged 11, of Mr. Bishop's academy, Clay-hill, En-

John Hee, aged 12, of the Free School, Louth.

John Kitson, aged 11 years and eight months, of Mr. Kitson's academy, Norwich.

George Lawfon, aged 12, of Mr. Blanchard's academy, Norwich. Robert Neale, aged five, of No. 7, Clifford's Inn, London.

William Reed, aged 12, of Mr. Peer's feminary, Thorp-Arch, Yorkshire.

William Roe, aged 13, of Mr. Webster's academy, Bracondale, near Norwich.

James Shore, aged 12 years and three months, of Mr. Crocker's academy, Frome, Somerfetshire.

John Tootal, aged nine years and nine months, of Horsforth femi-

John Stancomb, aged 13, of Mr. Wastfield's school, Imber, Wilt-shire.

R. Stanley, aged 12, of the Free School, Louth.

William Scott, aged 13, of Mr. Bishop's school, Clay-hill, Ensield. Christopher Munnings Vickery, aged 12 years and fix months, of Mr. Buck's academy, East Dereham.

Mary Ann Worthy, aged 12, of Mrs. Lawrence's academy, Highgate.

Henry Watson, aged 12, of Mr. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch. Charles Williams, aged six, of Mr. Williams's academy, York. Benjamin Wyks, aged 13, of Mr. Haddon's academy, Olney. John Wiley, aged 12, of Mr. Amphlett's academy, Wolverhampton.

About one hundred other specimens are laid aside, on account of the marks of haste or inattention by which they are accompanied. Young gentlemen who would attain excellence in Penmanship, or in any other art, must patiently and laboriously imitate the examples which are laid before them. Every difficulty in the pursuit of knowledge, or in the business of life, may be overcome by INDUSTRY and PERSEVERANCE.

NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. XI.

Answers to be received, post paid, and fully authenticated, on or before the Fifth of December.

CLASS I.

EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR.

Which of the fine Arts, Poetry, Painting, or Music, is (on the whole) most productive of innocent pleasure?

The best essay to be entitled to a pair of twelve inch globes, or to books, value three-guineas; the second best to a silver medal, value half a-guinea; and the eight next best to books, value five shillings each.

CLASS

CLASS II.

TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COM-

A Translation of the following

PORTRAIT DE L'HOMME.

Tout annonce dans l'homme le maître de la terre, tout marque en lui, même à l'extérieur, sa supériorité sur tous les êtres vivans; il se soutient droit et élevé, son attitude est celle du commandement, sa tête regarde le ciel et présente une face auguste sur laquelle est imprimé le caractère de sa dignité; l'image de l'âme y est peinte par la physionomie, l'excellence de sa nature perce à travers les organes matériels et anime d'un feu divin les traits de son visage; fon port majestueux, sa démarche ferme et hardie annonce sa noblesse et son rang; il ne touche à la terre que par ses extrêmités les plus éloignées; il ne la voit que de loin et semble la dédaigner; les bras ne lui sont pas donnés pour servir de piliers d'appui à la masse de son corps, sa main ne dott pas fouler la terre et perdre par des frottemens réitérés la finesse du toucher dont elle est le principal organe; le bras et la main sont faits pour servir à des usages plus nobles, pour exécuter les ordres de la volonté, pour choifir les choses éloignées, pour écarter les obstacles, pour prévenir les rencontres et le choc de ce qui pourroit nuire, pour embraffer et retenir ce qui peut plaire, pour le mettre à portée des autres sens.

Lorsque l'âme est tranquille, toutes les parties du visage sont dans un état de repos; leur proportion, leur union, leur ensemble marquent encore assez la douce harmonie des pensées, et répondent au calme de l'intérieur; mais lorsque l'âme est agitée, la face humaine devient un tableau vivant, où les possions sont rendues avec autant de délicatesse que d'énergie, où chaque mouvement de l'âme est exprimé par un trait, chaque action par un carastère dont l'impression vive et prompte devance la volonté, nous décèle, et rend au dehors par des signes pathétiques les images de nos secrètes agita-

tions.

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C'est surtout dans les yeux qu'elles se peignent, et qu'on peut les reconnoître; l'œil appartient à l'âme plus qu'aucun autre organe; il semble y toucher et participer à tous ses mouvemens; il en exprime les passions les plus vives et les émotions les plus tumultueuses, comme les mouvemens les plus doux et les sentimens les plus délicats; il les rend dans toute leur force, dans toute leur pureté, tels qu'ils viennent de naître; il les trants et par des traits rapides qui portent dans une autre âme le sen, l'action, l'image de celle dont ils partent, l'œil reçoit et réséchit en même temps la lumière de la pensée et la chaleur du sentiment, c'est le sens de l'esprit, et la langue de l'intelligence.

The best translation to be entitled to a Cabinet Library, value one guinea and a half; the seven next best to books, value sive shillings each.

-CLASS

CLASS III.

MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN NOT EXCEEDING SIXTEEN YEARS OF AGE.

A gentleman's effate is bordered on the fouth by a wide river, on the east by a winding brook, on the north by a carriage-road, on the west by a bridle-road. In the river are fixed three posts, through which a circular line passing separates his part of the river from his neighbour's. Of these three posts, one is placed in the middle of the river, exactly five hundred feet from each of the other two posts, which are the fouthern extremities of the eftate; the one just where the brook enters the river, the other where the bridle-road ends at the ferry at the opposite end. The distance between these two posts is exactly eight hundred feet. A wood runs from the river, along the bridle-road, to within a hundred feet of the main-road, where its breadth is the greatest, and exactly double its breadth at a hundred feet from the river. This wood occupies four hundred acres. A lawn of one hundred acres is bounded by the wood, the river, and the brook. The gentleman's house is at the upper part of this lawn, and with out-houses, stables, and gardens, occupies three acres. Besides the lawn, the gentleman keeps, in his own occupation, a hundred and fifty acres, which are bounded by the wood, the house and gardens, the lawn, the brook, and the land in occupation of the farmer. The whole estate contains exactly one thousand The post in the middle of the river, the middle of the gentleman's house, and the farm-house, which is by the main-road, are exactly in a straight line, and a line drawn from the threshold of the farm-house to the top of the pediment of the gentleman's house touches the top of a tree eighty feet high, and the top of the pediment, feen from the middle post, is thirty degrees high. In the farmer's land are ten fields; in the gentleman's lands fix fields, befides the lawn. It is required to map this effate, and to give the measurements by which the distance is found from the front door of the gentleman's house to the three posts, to the farm house, to the nearest end of the wood on the north, and to the point where the carriage-road croffes the brook. The best map shall be engraved, and the rest preserved for inspection.

The first, second, and third answers, in point of merit, to be entitled to cases of mathematical instruments, value one guinea and a half, one guinea, and twelve shillings each; and the three next to books, value five shillings each.

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TO CORRESPONDENTS, &c.

WE beg leave to return our thanks to the Rev. Mr. Cox, of Gainsbro' Grammar School, for his judicious letter. One part of his plan we however believe he must see is utterly impracticable, from the immense number of prize essays which are transmitted to us, and consequently the little time which we have to consider their respective merits; a task which we can assure him is onerous in no small degree to execute it (as we honestly endeavour) with the strictest justice and impartiality. His other friendly hints we shall

endeavour to purfue.

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We have also been favoured with a letter from another gentleman of the same name, dated Market Harbro', recommending our particular attention to the youth who are educated in commercial seminaries. To this we answer, that our publication embraces so wide a scope of useful science, that we trust it will be found to answer the views of most liberal seminaries of education; and will be found particularly well adapted to young perfons. educated for commerce. We have refifted various respectable applications, recommending Latin themes; because we conceived that not to be an object of such general utility and because the writing of Latin is attended to with so much laudable assiduity in most of our classical schools, that it appeared to us unnecessary. To compose well, on the contrary, in our own language, is an accomplishment that no person in the higher ranks of society ought to be deficient in, and yet it is scarcely made sufficient of an object even in the best seminaries. As a proof bow much a work of this nature was wanted, we beg leave to cite a passage from another respectable correspondent, the Rev. Mr. BARNES, master of the grammar-" Such is the spirit of emulation," fays Jebool, Barnard Caftle. be, "that pervades my school, fince the publication of the Preceptor, that every one who has any natural abilities is defirous now to distinguish bimself; and though you will find, in many of their pieces, inaccuracies, either of argument, orthography, expresfrom, or fentiment, yet you will fee those exertions of genius and memory, which have been more improved during the last fix months than in three times the same space of time before. This is a certain

of youth." From several other gentlemen engaged in the same important line, we have received a testimony equally stattering. One of them observes, "that since the publication of the Preceptor, bis boys have begun to think for themselves."

But though we conceive it to be of high importance to mercantile men (as well as others) to be able to express themselves with accuracy, with eafe, and even with eloquence in their native tongue. yet we have to observe, that this is only one (and perhaps not the oreatest) of the uses of our publication. It is on the matter which it contains, on the information which it diffeminates, that we rest our claim of approbation. It will comprize a useful, and. we trust, intelligible course of Natural and Experimental Phi-· losophy, of rational Biography, of Natural History, of Geography, and the Elements of General History, with Instructions in Criticism, and most departments of science and literature. For the fake of the public, for the fake of the young, we earneftly bope that none of our purchasers confine their attention to the trize estays. The main object of the Preceptor is to diffuse knowledge. not without some portion of entertainment; it is to enlighten the understandings of our young readers; and, in the words of a great writer. we are firmly of opinion, that whatever enlarges and improves the mind, has a tendency, at the same time, to correct and amend the beart.

Fac similes of the first and second specimens of Penmanship will be engraved and inserted in the next Number. The other specimens, which have obtained prizes, or which have been named with approbation, are deposited in a part folio, at Mr. Hurst's, in Paternoster-row, for the inspection of the Public, during the next three months.

ERRATUM.

For Miss Julia Hart, read Miss Julia Hort-

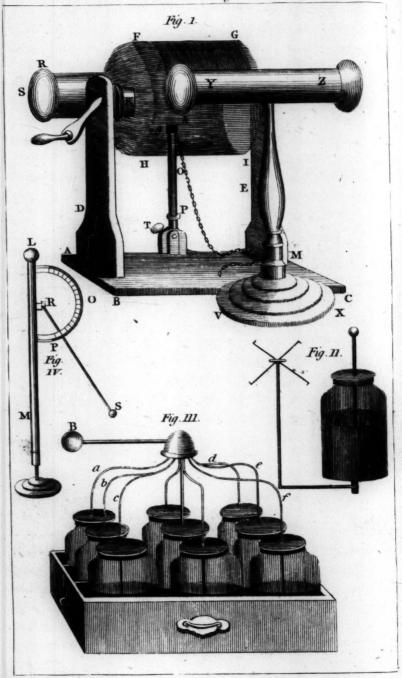
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LECTURES,

ADAPTED TO THE CAPACITIES OF

YOUNG PERSONS,

ON

Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE X.

OF ELECTRICITY.

If the electrical fluid is not the matter of fire, it refembles that element in so many of its phenomena and effects, that there is reason to believe it a combination of that element with some other substance. But of the nature of that combination we are at present ignorant. To mortify the pride of man, philosophy does not explain every thing to us; the really ignorant are those who think they know every thing; whereas the truly wise will see that there are many things placed out of the reach of human comprehension, and many things yet left to be discovered by the industry and the patience of man.

The electric matter resembles the matter of fire in its most assual effect, the power of igniting or setting on fire inflammable bodies; in melting metals; in the emission of light; and in the velocity of the electric light. Friction, which is known to produce heat and fire, is also the most powerful means of exciting electricity; heat also extends itself most rapidly in humid bodies and metals, and these are the best conductors of electricity; and as heat or fire is the most elastic of all fluids, and perhaps the great cause of repulsion, so the electrical repulsion may, perhaps, be referred to

the fame principle.

On the contrary, there are some facts which seem to prove that the electric matter is somewhat different in its nature from pure elementary fire. The electric matter as-

Vol. II. T fects

by certain matters, which, on that account, are called non-conductors; glass, in particular, which admits the passage of both heat and light, stops the course of the electric matter: on the contrary, the electric fluid will adhere most tenaciously to some other bodies, without diffusing itself even to those which are in contact with them: thus an electric spark has been drawn by a wire through the water of the river Thames, and has set fire to spirit of wine on the opposite side.

The principal phenomena of electricity are, first, The electrical attraction and repulsion. Secondly, the electrical fire rendered visible; and, thirdly, the power which certain substances possess of conducting the electrical matter; whence arises the distinction between conductors and non-conductors, or non-electric and electric bodies. The electric are those which are capable of being excited, such as glass, amber, &c. but do not conduct; the non-electrics are such as conduct the electric matter, but cannot be excited to produce it, such are metals, stones, and all fluid matters.

These phenomena were not, however, all discovered at once; on the contrary, it was by flow degrees that philosophy became acquainted with the properties of this surprising fluid. It was, however, long known that amber* and some other matters, when rubbed on a soft and elastic substance, had a power of attracting feathers, straws, or other light bodies. You may, without either pains or cost, make the experiment, by taking a piece of sealing-wax, and rubbing it quickly upon your worsted stocking, you will find that it will readily attract hair, seathers, chaff, &c. A smooth bubble of glass will answer still better.

Sulphur is also one of these bodies that is capable of exercising this power of attraction; and to observe more perfectly its effects, Otto Guericke, burgo-master of Magdebourg, (the same who is mentioned in a preceding lecture, as having afforded hints for the construction of the airpump) made a large globe of sulphur, which he sixed in a wooden frame, and, by whirling it about rapidly, and rubbing it at the same time with his hand, he was enabled to Amber, electron in Greek, whence the name electricity.

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perform feveral experiments. This may be regarded as the first electrifying machine. He observed that a body which was attracted by his globe was afterwards repelled by it, but that if it touched another body, it became after that capable of being attracted again. Thus he was able to keep a feather suspended over his globe; but if he drove it near a linen thread, or the flame of a candle, it instantly recovered its propenfity to approach the globe again. This fact is now explained; the feather, by being attracted by the globe, and when in contact with it, becomes charged, or loaded with the electric matter, when it touches or comes very near a body which is not charged with electricity, it parts with its share to that body, and returns again to receive a fresh supply, if " within the sphere of attraction," that is, within those limits whither the attractive powers of the globe extend.

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This philosopher was enabled to remark the hissing noise which a steam of the electric matter produces, and he had a glimpse of the electric light; but Dr. Wall, an English philosopher, observed it more clearly. By rubbing amber upon a woollen cloth in the dark, he found that light was produced, attended by a hissing or rather a crackling noise. Mr. Hawksbee, another of our countrymen, observed the same thing of glass; and he constructed a kind of machine, which enabled him to put a glass cylinder in motion.

Thus the electric attraction and the electric light were proved by experiment; but it was referved for Mr. Grey, a pensioner of the Charter-house, to make the distinction between those bodies which are capable of being excited to electricity, and those which are only capable of receiving it from others. After attempting in vain to give the power of attraction to metals, by rubbing, hammering, and heating, he conceived a suspicion, that as a glass tube, when rubbed in the dark, communicated its light to other bodies, it might possibly be made to communicate also its power of attraction. He provided himself, therefore, with a glass tube three seet five inches long, and near an inch and one-fifth in diameter. The ends of the tube were stopped with cork, and he found that when the tube was excited by friction, a feather was attracted as powerfully by the cork as

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by the tube itself. To convince himself more fully, he procured a small ivory ball, which he fixed to a stick of deal four inches long, and thrust into the cork; and he found that it attracted and repelled the seather even with more vigour than the cork itself. He afterwards fixed the ball to a longer stick, and even to a piece of wire with the same success. Lassly, he attached it to a piece of packthread, and hung it from a high balcony, where he sound that, by rubbing the tube, he enabled the ball to attract light bodies in the court below.

His next attempt was to examine whether this power acted as well horizontally as perpendicularly. With this view he made a loop of cord, which he hung to a nail in one of the beams of the cieling, and run his packthread, which had the ivory ball at the end, through the loop; but in this state he found, to his utter mortification, that his ball had totally loft the power of attraction. On mentioning his disappointment to a friend, it was suggested, that the cord which he employed for the loop, through which the packthread run, might be so coarse as to intercept the electric power. To remedy this, they made the loop of filk, which they confidered as ftronger, in proportion to its thickness, than the former. With this apparatus they succeeded beyond expectation. As they attributed their fuccess entirely to the fineness of the filk of which the loop was made, they thought they would perform ftill better by supporting the packthread by a very fine brass or iron wire; but, to their witer aftonishment, the electric virtue was entirely loft, while, on the contrary, when the apparatus was supported by the filk loops, they were able to convey the power of attraction along a packthread of feven hundred and fixtyfive feet in length. It was evident, therefore, that these effects depended upon fome quality in the tilk, which difabled it from conducting away the electric power, as the hempen cord and the wire had done; and, by subsequent experiments, this hypothesis was amply confirmed.

This little narrative may ferve to give you a competent idea of non-conducting and conducting bodies; and remember, that those bodies which do not conduct the electric fluid are most capable of exciting it, and are supposed

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to be naturally charged or loaded with a quantity of it. They have, therefore, been called electrics; fuch are amber, jet, fulphur, glass, and all precious stones, all resinous substances; and the dried parts of animals, except the bones, such as hair, wool, silk, &c. On the contrary, stony substances in general, sluids in general, allum, pyrites, vitriolic acid, black lead, charcoal, and all kinds of metals are among the non-electrics, or those which conduct the electric fluid.

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Soon after the discoveries, as above related of Mr. Grey, both the English and German philosophers contrived means of accumulating the electric matter, and increasing its effects. Not only the electric fire was rendered visible, but it was made to pass from one conducting body to another. Spirits and other inflammable matters were easily set on fire by the electric spark; and animal bodies were made to feel what is called the electric shock, that is, the uneasy sensation felt on the electric shuid passing through any part of our bodies.

The machines at first constructed for producing the electric fire were, at first, made in a very complex form. It is now found that it may be excited by very simple means; and the machine exhibited in the plate (fig. 1.) though very. finple is very powerful. In this figure ABC represents: the board on which the machine is placed. D and E are: two perpendicular supports, which sustain the glass cylinder FGHI. The axis of the cap K, in which the cylinder is fixed, paffes through the support D, and it is turned by a winch or handle, as represented in the plate. The axis of the other cap is inserted in the supporter E, OP is the glass. pillar to which the cushion is fixed, and at the top of the pillar is a conductor RS, which is called the negative conductor, or that from which the electric matter is drawn by the rotation of the cylinder. At the bottom of the pillar OP is a brass screw T, which brings the cushion nearer to the cylinder or removes it further, at the difcretion of the operator, when he wishes to increase or lessen the pressure.

YZ is the positive prime conductor, which takes the electric matter immediately from the cylinder; and in order that the electric fluid may be accumulated upon the con-

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ductor,

ductor, and not run off to the earth, the conductor is infulated, that is, placed upon a non-conducting body, which will not attract the fluid away from the conductor. The infulating fubstance, in this case, is a glass pillar, LM, (glass being the most convenient substance for this purpose) and VX is the wooden foot or base of the glass pillar. The conductor is always of metal, at least externally, as metals are found to be the most powerful of the conducting bodies. They are commonly made of wood, and cased over with tin-foil.

When electrical machines were first constructed, instead of a cylinder, a glass globe was made use of; and when this was turned, the hand of the operator was applied to it; and afterwards a piece of glove leather; but the most effectual and eafy means is now found to be a leather cushion, covered or fineared over with what is called an amalgam, or a mixtu e of tin and mercury. A fmall chain is alfo, you perceive, annexed to the apparatus, in order to make a communication with the earth, which is always necessary, as the electrical fluid is all supposed to be ultimately derived from the earth. When the chain is laid over that conductor which communicates with the cushion, then that conductor is no longer infulated, but an immediate commupication is established with the earth; if, on the contrary, the chain is taken from it, and laid over the prime conductor, different effects are produced, which I shall endeayour hereafter to explain. An annual and annual

It is fearcely necessary to inform you, as most of you must have seen it, that the electrical power is excited by turning the cylinder pretty quickly round, while it rubs against the cushion. On turning the cylinder for a little time in this manner, you will find that sparks may be drawn by your knuckle from the prime conductor, which is then charged or loaded with the electric matter, and this matter has, you will perceive, a kind of sulphureous smell. Again, if a metal plate is placed at some distance beneath the conductor, and some light bodies, such as feathers, straws, or little images of men and women cut in paper are presented to it, you will find that they will be first attracted to the conductor, they then become in effect conductors themselves,

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selves, and, as soon as charged with the electrical matter, they will be repelled; they will then fly to the plate, and discharge the electricity they have received, and then be in a state to be attracted again, when they will again fly up to the conductor; and a very curious effect is produced by the little images being thus put in motion by a kind of ma-

gical power.

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The human body itself may, in this manner, be made a conductor; but to enable it to accumulate any quantity of the electric matter, the man must be infulated, that is, some non-conducting substance must be placed between him and the earth, and he must stand upon a cake of rosin, wax, or sulphur, or upon a stool with glass legs. If, then, he lays his hand upon the conductor, his body will be filled with the electrical matter, and sparks may be drawn from any part, upon being touched by another person; and each spark will be attended with a crackling noise, and a painful sensation to each party. If, in the same circumstances, spirit of wine is presented to the man in a metal spoon, when he touches it with his singer it will be set on fire; and gunpowder, or any other very inflammable substance, may be kindled in the same manner.

As metals are the most powerful conductors of electricity, if a wire of iron or any other metal is suspended by silken cords, (that is, infulated) the electric matter may be conveyed to an immense distance through dry air, for air is a non-conducting substance when not moit, and therefore will not draw away the electric matter. In this manner some French philosophers conveyed the electric fire through a circuit of three miles. Nay, though water is a conductor, yet not being so powerful as metals, Dr. Watson, of Lincoln's Inn Fields, conveyed (as you have already heard) the electric fire by means of a wire through the Thames, and it set fire to spirit of wine on the opposite side.

The most powerful means, however, of accumulating the electric fluid is found to be the Leyden phial. This discovery was made about the year 1745, by Mr. Von Kleist, dean of the cathedral of Camnin. He found that a nail or a piece of iron wire, inclosed in an apothecary's phial, and

exposed

exposed to the prime conductor, had a power of accumulating the electric virtue, so as to produce the most remarkable effects; and he foon after found that a small quantity. of fluid added to it increased the power. The fact is, that if glass is coated on one side with any conducting substance, that substance will accumulate the electrical matter, because it is intercepted by the glass, and prevented from diffusing itself. and the form of the glass is of little consequence. The Levden phial or jar, as at prefent employed, is a thin cylindrical glass vessel, such as fig. 2, about four inches in diameter, and coated within and without, to within two inches of the top, with tin-foil or any conducting substance. Within the jar, you fee, is a metal wire, with a knob at the top of it, which wire communicates with the inner coating of the jar. To difcharge the phial, a communication must be made (either by what electricians call a conducting or discharging rod, or any other fit instrument) between the inner and outer coating of the jar. To prove its effects, therefore, place the phial or jar (fig. 2.) on an infulated fland, bring the coating in contact with the conductor, and then turn the machine. If in this case you apply the discharging rod, you will End there will be no explosion, because both sides being insulated, the phial was not charged; but if a small chain is sufpended from the brafs knob of the phial, and communicates with the table, the phial will then be charged, and the explosion will be considerable. The reason of this has been explained before, as it was proved that the electrical WALL WIND matter is derived from the earth.

The shock which is given by the Leyden phial is much more powerful than that from the largest conductor; but this power is greatly increased, by uniting together the force of several jars, in what is called an electrical battery (see fig. 3.). The bottom of the box in this apparatus is covered with tin-foil, to connect the external coatings of the jars; and the inside coatings are connected by the wires a, b, c, d, e, f, which meet in the large ball above. There is a hook at the bottom of the box, by which any substance may be connected with the outside coating of the jars; and a ball B proceeds from the inside, by which the circuit may be conveniently

from

veniently completed. By the discharge of an electrical battery a large dog may be killed in an instant, and the strongest man will be knocked down and deprived of sensation; a wire of some magnitude may be melted, and most of the phenomena of lightning are produced, but on a sinaller scale.

NATURAL HISTORY.

OF FISHES.

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WE have have hitherto omitted to treat of this class of animals, because it was proper that our young readers should be previously acquainted with the habits and nature of land animals, before they explored the watry regions. As we have implicitly bound ourselves to follow the claffification of the great Swedish naturalist, we think it necessary to mention, that he only regards as fishes those which were formerly called spinous fishes, or those which have hard and spinous bones. The cetaceous or whale kind, including the dolphins, he classes among the mammalia, or animals with teats; and the cartilaginous he places among the amphibia or reptiles, though this arrangement has, with some propriety, been objected to. As the Linnæan system now stands, the bony fishes, which breathe by gills, are referred to four orders. These are, 1st. the apodal, or those which are destitute of ventral (or belly) fins. 2d. The jugular, or those whose ventral are placed before their pectoral fins. 3d. The thoracic, or those which have the ventral fins exactly underneath the pectoral. And 4th. the abdominal, or those whose ventral fins are nearer the tail than the pectoral fins.

ORDER I. APODAL FISHES.

The first genus of this order is the Eel, which differs from almost every other fish of that order, of which it is placed at the top, in the manner of its generation, as it is viviparous, or brings forth its young alive. The antients entertained very extravagant notions concerning the generation of these animals. Aristotle afferted that they were neither male nor female. Hence it was believed that they sprung from the mud, or that the incrustations, scraped

from their bodies by the stones, received animation. Rondeletius rashly adopted this opinion, from having observed
that they were generated in pools, from which all the mud
and water had been for a while extracted. This was a
phenomenon for which they could in no other way account, than by the spontaneous generation of eels: but
later observations have ascertained, that ponds are often
supplied with these fish in the same manner that vegetation
is spread, by transporting the seeds of plants. The heron,
or other water sowl, may drop the eel when carrying it to
its nest, or the young eels may be ejected unburt from its
bowels, as the seeds of plants are voided by land birds,
without being injured by the operation of the stomach.

In their habitation the fishes of this genus are still more singular than in their manner of propagating their young. They can reside either in salt or fresh water; and, what is still more surprising, they are in some measure independent of either; for they sometimes leave their native element, and wander, during night, along the dewy meadows, not only for a change of habitation, but in quest of prey. Of these nightly excursions the snail is commonly the victim,

being devoured by the eel as it paffes along.

There is no animal more vivacious than the eel; when drawn from the water it will furvive blows that would have killed an animal ten times its fize; and even after it is cut afunder the different parts are feen to move. It is, however, so easily destroyed by cold, that, to avoid it, it beds itself deep among the mud, and continues, like the serpent tribe, in a torpid state during winter. Some have been known to take shelter under a rick of hay in severe weather, and even there, have all perished from an excess of cold. Though fond of hiding themselves in the mud, they are incapable of living in thick turbid water; and hence, when a river is disturbed by a flood, they are frequently suffocated by the impurity of the stream.

The COMMON EEL has no scales, the body being all over lubricated with a viscous substance, serving at once to protect the animal from cold and external injury. Those which are sed in pure running water are brighter in their colour,

as well as more delicate in their flesh,

The irides are white, and near the eyes are feen the orifices of smell. The branchiæ are four in number, covered with a skin, and extremely small: the aperture externally communicating with them, is so minute, that it occasions their suffocation in muddy water, and is probably the cause why they are capable of living so long in the open air.

There are several varieties of the common eel, probably occasioned by the different food on which they are supported. These animals are all extremely voracious; they devour carrion or any putrid substance that falls in the way.

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This species often grows to a pretty large size, some weighing seventeen pounds; there is, indeed, an inferior kind in the Thames and about Oxford, which neither attain to the same size nor fatness; they are known by the largeness of the head and the roundness of the snout, and have there received the appellation of grigs. Every species of the eel was deemed among the Romans contemptible food, according to Juvenal, from their foul feeding and their refemblance to a snake.

The Congor Eet often grows to an enormous fize; fome are taken eighteen inches in circumference, and ten feet long, weighing upwards of an hundred pounds. A fishery of congors, established at Mount's Bay, in Cornwall, forms a very considerable article of commerce. They are annually exported to Spain and Portugal in a dried state, where they are ground down into a kind of powder, and are used in enriching their soups.

They are caught by a fort of line called a bulter, baited with pilchards; when taken, they are flit up, that a part of the fat may exude from them before they are falted, and fit for use; and so considerable is the quantity of juice that thus escapes, that a fish of a hundred weight will not dry to above twenty-five pounds.

This species is distinguished by the same voracity as the former; it devours other sish, crabs, and even carcases; it is very prolific, for the number of its young that annually ascends the Severn is prodigious; they are there called elvers; and during the month of April, they swarm in such shoals, that they are thrown out upon the shore with small sieves made of hair, and fixed to the end of a pole; a man will in

this

this manner take out as many at one tide as will fill a bushel.

The SEA SERPENT is a hideous animal, which may be referred to the genus of eels, which, in its external figure, it nearly refembles. It is generally about five feet in length, slender, and almost entirely of the same thickness, till near the tail, where it tapers off in a small point. The upper part of the body is of a dirty yellow, the under bright blue. The snout is long, slender, and prominent, divided by a frightful mouth, armed on the inner parts with small teeth. The tail is not compressed as in the eels, but round, and simbriated, with no fins; neither the anal nor dorsal reach-

ing to its extremity.

There are feveral other kinds of sea-serpents, some spotted and others red; but as these are mostly foreign fishes, whose history is altogether unknown, we forbear to enumerate them, and to tire the reader with the barren and uninftructive description of their forms. One species, however, of the eel tribe deserves our notice, because it has been found to possess the same narcotic powers as the torpedo; it is the GYMNOTUS ELECTRICUS of Linnæus, called by the English the torporific or electrical eel. This fingular fish is only found in the interior parts of South America, particularly in the lakes of Surinam, whence it has been transported to Different attempts have been made to introduce it into Europe, but without success. If touched with the hand it communicates a strong shock to the arm; and the fame effect is produced by applying it to a metallic rod," whereas it is harmless when touched with a piece of wood. From these experiments it appears certain, that the matter discharged by the torporific eel partakes of the nature of the electric fluid. The tribe of gymnoti, in which Linnæus places this animal, comprehends five different species; of the eels, properly fo called, he enumerates only feven kinds.

THE SECOND GENUS IS THE SEA WOLF.

This voracious fish inhabits the northern parts of the ocean; it is found on the coasts of Ireland, Greenland, and Norway, but seldom ventures farther south than those parts

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of the German Ocean which wash the shores of Britain and Holland. The back, fins, and sides, are of an azure hue; towards the belly it is white, and the whole skin is smooth.

What particularly distinguishes this animal is its large mouth, and formidable teeth: no sish, indeed, seems more completely armed for devastation than the sea-wolf, and none more willing to use the instruments with which nature has supplied it; it will gnaw even the anchor of a ship, so that the noise is heard above; and the marks of its teeth are plainly discernible on weighing it up.

The teeth of this fish are frequently dug up in a petrified state, where they are called busonites, or toad-stones; formerly they were much esteemed for their imaginary virtues; they were sometimes set in gold, and worn as jewels; the teeth of three large sishes of this species were seen at Scarborough, every one of which were either broken or dissigned by the hard substances which these animals had attempted to macerate.

The food of the wolf-fish is crustaceous fishes, the shells of which it can easily crush. These animals are oviparous; and their young, for some time after their production from the egg, are of a greenish cast, resembling the sea-weeds among which they then reside.

GENUS THIRD .- THE SAND EEL, OR LANCE.

These fishes somewhat resemble the eel in their external form, as their name imports. They are dug or hooked up from the sand in the shallow pools that are left by the reslux of the tide, commonly for bait, though they are themselves reckoned delicate food.

The body is nearly a foot long, of a square form, but rounded towards the sides, which are divided, each by a strait line proceeding from the head, and terminating in the tail; the lower jaw projects beyond the upper, and, when extended, the gape of the animal is very wide; there are no teeth, the long sharp tongue moving in a mouth entirely smooth; the pectoral fins are placed near the gills; the dorsal and the anal fins are supported by numerous rays, and proceed nearly as far back as the tail.

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GENUS FOURTH .- THE OPHIDIUM

Has great resemblance, in shape, to some of the tribe of eels, but is of inferior size. Belonius afferts, that those in the Mediterranean are not above a handbreadth. The back is cinereous; the sides of a silver colour: there are no scales, but in their place a number of oblong spots here and there dispersed over the body, which is exactly divided by a lateral line, which extends along each side from the head to the tail.

GENUS FIFTH .- THE STROMATEUS.

Linnæus enumerates two species under this genus, the statola and the parda. The characters are, a round flat body, covered with a smooth glutinous skin, and destitute of scales. The colour of the upper part of the body is pale azure, that of the belly silver; the whole beautifully ornamented with yellow spots; upon each side are two lines, the one straight, and the other incurvated like a bow.

Willoughby observed these fishes exposed in the markets in different parts of Italy, where they are reckoned most delicate food, and bring a high price; none of them have

yet been found in the British feas.

THE SIXTH GENUS IS THE SWORD FISH.

A name evidently derived from the peculiar conformation of the upper jaw; it projects about four times the length of the lower one, is compressed at the top and bottom, and sharpened towards the point. This enormous shout is three seet long, resembling a sword in shape; its substance is rough and hard, but by no means capable of piercing and sinking vessels in the sea, as is afferted by Pliny.

The fword-fish grows to a large fize, the head alone being, in some instances, known to weigh upwards of seventy pounds. The body is long and slender, thick towards the head, but tapering off into a small size as it approaches the tail: the colour above is black, and on the belly of a silvery white: the mouth is without teeth; the lower jaw terminates like the upper one, in a sharp spear-like point, but is

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greatly inferior in length. The fword-fish is exceedingly voracious, and is a great enemy of the tunny, which discovers fear as soon as it approaches. Ovid and Belon take notice of its hostilities against this timid prey.

The fword-fish sometimes frequents the British seas, but is much more common in the Mediterranean; the Straits of Mellina are particularly famous for it; and it was probably upon a promontory there that the speculatores, or perfons employed to watch and give notice of its approach, were flationed. Willoughby informs us, that he went himself to Scylla to be a spectator of the Italian method of killing this animal: the spies above, on seeing the sword, make signals to the boats below, directing the failors where to fleer: as foon as the veffel reaches the fpot where the fishes are, one of the most skilful of the fishermen gets upon a mast, erected for the purpose, and directs the boat till it comes within reach of the particular fish at which he intends to aim; he then comes down and pierces it with a spear; this instrument being fastened to a rope, the animal is allowed to struggle till it is overcome with fatigue and pain, when it is either taken up into the vessel, or drawn ashore, according to the fize of the fish.

The flesh of this animal is whiter than that of the tunny, nourishing, and not unpleasant in its flavour. The inhabitants of Sicily reckon it one of the first delicacies, equal to the sturgeon, and purchase it frequently at the price of

fixpence the English pound.

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY. No. X.

THE LIFE OF FENELON.

ARCHBISHOP OF CAMBRAY, AND AUTHOR OF TELEMACHUS.

WHILE the adventures of Telemachus are read with delight by the youth of every polished nation throughout Europe, the character of its inestimable author should be displayed as a model for their imitation. The name of Fenelon ought to awaken in all hearts the desire of excel-

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lence, and confirm the love of virtue. Feeling, tafte, and genius were the characteristics of his mind; integrity, be-

nevolence, and piety the foundation of his morals.

Francis de Salignac de la Motte Fenelon, descended from a noble samily, was born at the Chateau de Fenelon, in the province of Perigord, on the 6th of August, 1651. In the dawn of youth he gave proofs of a penetrating understanding and a benevolent disposition, and early inured himself to habits of constancy and reflection. At twelve years of age he was sent to the university of Cahors, and thence was removed to Paris; where, under the direction of his uncle, the Marquis de Fenelon, he pursued his studies, and pre-

pared himfelf for holy orders.

The Marquis de Fenelon was no less diftinguished for the excellence of his understanding than for his rank and honourable employments. In his house the genius and acquirements of the young Fenelon foon became conspicuous. The Marquis loved his nephew; he observed his rifing talents with delight; he dreaded left flattery should undermine the native simplicity of his character; he endeavoured to fulfil the highest of the paternal duties, and guard his youthful mind from taint and corruption; and when at the age of nineteen Fenelon assumed the office of a preacher, and was celebrated throughout Paris for the power and graces of his elocution, his uncle, eagerly fnatched him from the dangers of this early popularity. The nobles minded youth yielded to the judgment of his uncle, and retired from the applauses of multitudes, to devote himself to fludy and to the observance of ecclesiastical duties.

At the expiration of five years he refumed his clerical functions; and, at the age of twenty-seven, was appointed to be fuperior of the newly converted female catholics. These were principally young persons who had embraced the catholic religion to shun the persecutions that had fallen heavily on their families and connections. In Fenelon they received an instructor whose persuasive eloquence made many of them converts in heart. The first works of his pen were addressed to their feelings and situations; and while he was thus employed in the mild and benevolent exercise of the duties of his situation, the king, having heard

heard of his fuccess in making catholics, placed him at the head of a mission for the conversion of protestants along the coast of Saintonge and the Pays d'Aunis. The pike and the bayonet were usually the support of the missionaries. We will hope, for the honour of humanity, that many of the divines employed on these occasions deplored the persecutions in which they were commanded to affist; but Fenelon alone, with undaunted magnanimity, opposed the will of a bigotted and absolute monarch, and refused to make desolation and death the heralds of religion. His firmness subdued even the arbitrary Louis XIV.; two provinces were given to his care, and happily rescued from the outrages of a brutal soldiery.

Fenelon returned from the Pays d'Aunis with an approving conscience. The most enlightened men of the age now
eagerly sought his friendship. Gratisted by the testimonies
of their esteem, and happy in the pursuit of knowledge, he
avoided the court, and neglected the usual means of advancement in the church. At length the popular voice recommended him to the bishopric of Poitiers with a clamour
not to be wholly resisted; and his name was already inscribed on the register, but some court influence had another to prefer, the register was cancelled, and Fenelon remained without a benefice-

Scarcely was this fcene paffed when Fenelon was fuddenly placed in an eminent fiation: he was appointed to

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superintend the education of the dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Bern; they were grandsons of Louis XIV.; and

the Duke of Burgundy the heir apparent of his crown.

The French nation, at that period, beheld with terror the haughty and turbulent Duke of Burgundy, fcorning all dictates but those of his ungoverned will; his talents were obscured by his defects, till Fenelon, with unparalleled skill in the science of education, taught him the value of self-respect, the importance of his duties, and presented to the monarch and the people an interesting and accomplished prince, at once the ornament and example of the court.

It was, perhaps, eafy for the genius of Fenelon to conceive a plan for this great work; but it was the peculiar combination of inflexible virtues and amiable qualities in

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his mind that enabled him to accomplish it. He won every subordinate person to act in concert with himself. The young prince became the friend of his preceptor; they appeared to partake of one mind. The preceptor was wholly devoted to the pupil; his Dialogues of the Dead were composed on separate occasions, to cure the prince of some fault, or incite him to the exercise of some virtue; his Directions for the Conscience of a King were written to impress the mind of the prince with the duties of his station; and, finally, the grand and beautiful fiction of Telemachus was invented to form the father of his people.

These works were translated into many languages, and Europe resounded with Fenelon's praises; but the court of France, which he delighted with his wit and instructed by his example, all this time took no care of the advancement of his fortunes. He was too regardless of worldly wealth, and too independent to ask favours. At length the king voluntarily bestowed on him the abbey of St. Valery, and shortly after raised him to the see of Cambray. Fenelon at first declined this latter dignity, conceiving the duties of his diocese, and those of his employment near the prince, to be incompatible with each other. The king did not listen to his objections, and, as the education of the prince was nearly completed, it was determined that he should remain nine months of the year at Cambray, and pass the other three in the superintendance of his pupil.

No fooner was Fenelon confecrated to the fee of Cambray than he returned the king's first gift, the abbey of St. Valery. The monarch was utterly amazed at so rare an instance of disinterestedness; he even solicited the archbishop to keep St. Valery; but Fenelon, acting upon the truest sense of rectitude, dispossessed himself of the abbey, and also of a small priory, to which his uncle, the Bishop of Sarlat,

had appointed him.

France had her ambitious prelates and rapacious courtiers, whom this noble conduct of Fenelon covered with confusion; they could not endure in him the virtue they had not strength to imitate, and a cabal was speedily formed which banished Fenelon from the court for ever.

Madae Guyon, about this time, a woman of distinguished

talents and exemplary piety, but of an enthusiastic turn of mind, published fome opinions not strictly conformable to the tenets of the church of Rome; the underwent great perfecution; and Fenelon, who was ever on the fide of fuffering humanity, undertook to examine her doctrines, and found in them fuch proofs of a heart fincerely devoted to God, that he composed a book to justify her to the world, and conciliate her perfecutors. This was an opportunity his enemies among the priefts and courtiers inftantly feized upon, to accuse him of diffenting from the catholic church; and their intrigues were fo far fuccessful, that, after an examination of the work by a conclave of cardinals, who were eighteen months in detecting the herefy, he was condemned by the pope to suppress the book. Fenelon received and obeyed the mandate with the utmost submission to an authority he greatly reverenced.

During the progress of these cabals, Fenelon composed his Telemachus. A servant employed in transcribing the manuscript, pursoined a copy, and it was published before the author had sent his own copy to the press. France received it with enthusiasm. It was addressed to all ages, to all capacities, to all hearts. The interest of its sable, the variety and truth of its characters, its rich and picturesque descriptions, fascinated the young, while the ear of the critic was gratished by the harmony of its style, and he viewed, with wonder and delight, the use the author had made of the riches of antiquity and the treasures of the ima-

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gination.

Telemachus was handed up to the throne. It was avowedly written to form a great prince, and its maxims and moral certainly differed in no small degree from the reigning king. Louis was well disposed to mark the illustration, and there wanted not invidious flatterers near the monarch to represent that the whole was a severe satire upon himself and the court. The royal command was iffued against the printing or publishing Telemachus. Fenelon was exiled to his diocese of Cambray, and the Duke of Burgundy forbidden to correspond with him; Louis XIV. might banish the enlightened Fenelon from his court, and the bigots of the Romish church might endeavour to spread their invectives

invectives against his tolerance, but the shafts of calumny fell pointless upon him whose virtue was his armour. The love of good men, and the blessings of the nation consoled him; and in the resources of his mind, and the exercise of his benevolence, he every where could create a paradise around him. The grateful Duke of Burgundy would not be denied the privilege of corresponding with his beloved preceptor. Their letters have been published, and give to each a new claim upon the love and admiration of pos-

terity.

Fenelon, in the episcopal chair, exercised the same vigilant observance of his duties as in his station of preceptor. He established a seminary at Cambray, where he presided over the instruction of the young elergy. He made regular journies through his diocese, preached in the churches of the smallest villages, visited the cottages of the poor, supplied their wants, prescribed for their diseases, listened to details of their minutest concerns, advised and encouraged them, played with their children, partook of their homeliest meals, nor ever wounded the sensibility of the poor, by seeming to be incommoded by their familiarity or their powerty. In his palace he lived without luxuries, nor exhibited any parade while he practised unbounded hospitality. His wants were few, and his revenues devoted to the necessities of others.

In the year 1710 the war approached to Cambray. The terrified inhabitants of the villages fled for shelter to the city. of Cambray; Fenelon opened his palace to crouds of the unfortunate people. There he was feen passing from apartment to apartment bestowing succour and consolation: he neither feared the contagion of their difeases, nor was difgusted with the spectacle of almost every infirmity; he only felt their diftresses, and hourly practifed the virtueshe had so ably recommended from the pulpit and his pen. While the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene were purfuing their military career, and laying wafte the provinces of France, they gave the highest proofs of their veneration for the name of Kenelon. They fent detachments of their foldiers to gather in his crops, and conveyed them untouched to his granaries. His property wa facredly guarded he ed of life

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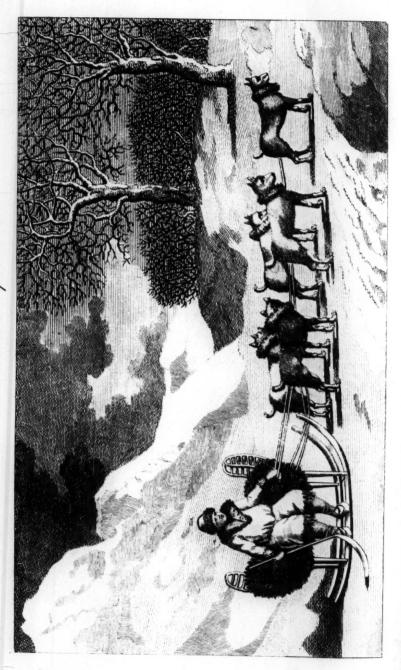
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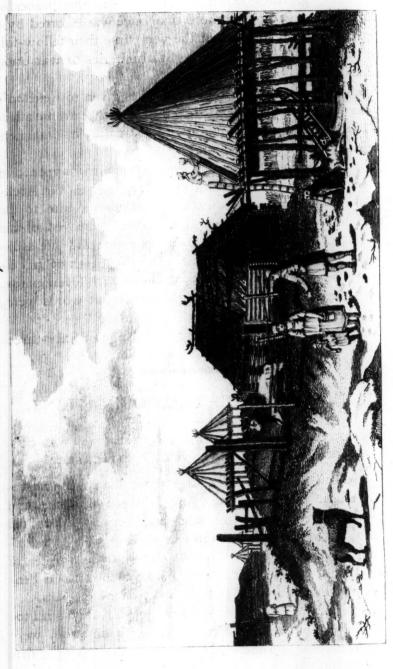
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AVIEW at BOLCHERETZKOI in KAMITSCHAITKA.

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guarded from plunder; and at the time of his making his accustomed journies through the diocese, the peaceable Archbishop of Cambray more than once was escorted by a troop of Austrian hustars, at the very time their sellow-soldiers were inflicting all the frightful miseries of war upon his less exalted countrymen.

Such were the honourable testimonies given to Fenelon's virtues: his intimate friends loved him with extreme affection, for his temper was equal and vivacious, his manners

polished, and his taste exquisite.

The death of the Duke of Burgundy, which happened in the year 1712, was a general calamity, and, to the Archbishop of Cambray, an affliction that bound him to the earth; but while he suffered like a father bereaved of his only hope, he did not cease from his pious and useful labours. He lived but three years after the death of his illustrious pupil. His sickness was attended with severe pains, but his patience was exemplary; and his last words were, "Thy will, O God, and not mine, be done."

Fenelon died in January, 1715, at the age of fixty-three.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUS-TOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF KAMTSCHATKA.

AMTSCHATKA is a large peninfula on the north-eastern part of Asia, lying between sifty-one and sixty-two degrees north latitude, and between a hundred and sixty-five degrees east longitude. It is bounded on the east and south by the sea of Kamtschatka, on the west by the seas of Ochotsk and Penshinsk, and on the north by the country of the Koriacs.

This peninful was not discovered by the Russians till towards the end of the last century; at which time they were held in the greatest veneration by the natives, who at first seemed to imagine that no human power could affect these strangers, until they quarrelled among themselves, and the blood was seen to flow from wounds which they inslicted on each other: foon after this they were almost all killed by the natives. As the inhabitants, however, were neither numerous nor warlike, it required no great force to subdue them; and in 1711 the whole country was reduced to subjection under the Russians. For some years this acquisition was of little consequence to the conquerors, excepting on account of a small tribute, in surs, exacted from the inhabitants. The Russians occasionally hunted the soxes, wolves, ermines, sables, and other animals, whose skins form an extensive article of commerce among the eastern nations; but the fur trade from this part was very inconsiderable for a great length of time.

The face of the country is chiefly mountainous. It produces poplars, willows, and underwood. Vegetables are also raised with facility; but agriculture is in a very low state, owing to the nature of the soil, and the severe frosts. The cultivation of all kinds of grain has been attempted, but without success. The Russians every year supply Kamtschatka with salt, provisions, corn, and manufactures, and receive in return large supplies of skins and furs.

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The peninfula is divided by the Russians into four diftricts, and the government of the whole is dependent upon, and subject to the chancery of Ochotik. The Russian force amounts to three hundred men; and the whole population of Kamtschatka exceeds little more than four thousand people. It was formerly much more numerous; but, in 1768, five thousand persons were destroyed by the ravages of the small-pox. There are now only about eight hundred males in Kamtschatka and the neighbouring Kurile islands, who are tributary to Russia. The fixed annual tribute confifts in two hundred and feventy-nine fables; four hundred and fixty-four red foxes; fifty fea-otters, with a dam; and thirty-eight cub-otters. All furs exported to foreign countries pay a duty of ten per cent to the crown of Russia: the tenth part of the cargoes brought from the neighbouring islands is also delivered into the customs.

There are, fays M. de Lesseps,* three forts of inha-

^{*} See Travels in Kamtschatka, during the Years 1787 and 1788, translated from the French of M. de Lesseps, Consul of France, &c. 2 vols. 8vo. Johnson. 1790.

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bitants in Kamtschatka, namely, the natives or Kamtschadales, the Russians and Cossacs, and the descendants from intermarriages. The true Kamtschadales are, in general, below the common height, their shape is round and squat, their eyes small and sunk, their cheeks prominent, their nose flat, their hair black, they have scarcely any beard, and their complexion is a little tawny. The complexion and features of the women are very nearly the same. They are as wild as the country they inhabit. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place with their herds of rein-deer; others have dwellings, and reside on the banks of the rivers and the shores of the sea, living upon sish and sea-animals, and such herbs as grow upon the shore: the former dwell in huts covered with deer-skin, the latter in places dug out of the earth.

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The character of the Kamtschadales is mild and hospit-They live together in great harmony, and, notwithstanding their disposition to idleness, are at all times ready to affift one another in their labours, which is a decided proof of their zeal to oblige. An active life would be insupportable to them; and their greatest happiness, next to that of drunkennels,* feems to be that of having nothing to do, and to live for ever in tranquil indolence. This is carried fo far as, in some instances, to lead them to neglect the means of providing the indispensable necessaries of life; and whole families are frequently reduced to all the feverities of famine, because they would not take the pains of providing in fummer a referve of fish, without which they were unable to live in the winter. If they are thus negligent in the preservation of their existence, it will not be supposed that they are more attentive to the article of cleanliness; indeed they may be reproached for being addicted to the contrary extreme.

Their manner of living is flovenly to the last degree: they never wash their hands nor face, nor cut their nails:

^{*} Although these people are extremely addicted to the vice of intoxication, and will barter any thing for brandy, yet the effects of this beastly vice are no where more visible than here. Whenever a Kamtschadale drinks to excess, he is sure to be dreadfully agitated during the succeeding night, and to seel all the horrors of melancholy the next day.

they eat out of the fame dish with the dogs, and they never wash it: they never comb their heads, but both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with small ropes, on which account they are never without vermin, which continually prey upon them; and which, it is even said, their filthy habits allow them, in their turn, to devour by handfuls. Those who have not natural hair sufficient wear salse locks, sometimes as much as will weigh ten pounds, which gives an appearance to the head of an hay-cock.

The clothes of the Kamtschadales are, for the most part, made of the fkins of deer, dogs, feveral fea and land animals, and even the skins of birds, those of different animals being frequently joined in the same garment. They make the upper garment after two fashions; fometimes cutting the skirts all of an equal length, and sometimes leaving them long behind, in form of a train, with wide fleeves of a length to come below the knee, and a cawl or hood, which covers their heads in bad weather; the opening above is only large enough to let their head pass in, and round the opening they few the skins of dogs, with which they cover their faces in cold or stormy weather. Round their skirts and sleeves they few borders of white dog-ikin; upon their backs they few the small shreds of skins of different colours. They commonly wear two coats; the under-coat with the hairfide inwards, the other fide being dyed with alder; and the upper with the hair outwards. For the upper garment they choose black, white, or speckled skins, the hair of which is most esteemed for the beauty of its colour.

Men and women, without distinction, use the above mentioned garments, their dress only differing in their under clothing, which consists of breeches and waistcoat sewed together, and in the covering for their feet. The summer habits are made of dressed skins without hair: their winter garment is made of deer or ram-skins with the hair on. The household habit of the men is a girdle of leather with a bag before, and likewise a leathern apron to cover them behind; these girdles are sewed with hair of different colours. The Kamtschadales used formerly to take excursions of hunting and fishing during the summer in this dress; but now

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new they wear linen thirts, which they purchase of the Ruffians.

The covering of their feet and legs is made of kins of different forts. But the buskins, which they use in their finest dress, are made in the following manner: the sole is of a white seal-skin, the upper part of fine white leather, the hind quarters of white dog-skin; what comes round the legs is of dreffed leather, or dyed feal-skin, the upper parts are embroidered. These are so extraordinary, that if a bachelor is observed to wear them, he is immediately

concluded to be upon a scheme of courtship.

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The common clothes of a Kamtschadale and his family will not cost him less than a hundred rubles, which are equal to twenty-two pounds ten shillings of our money. The inhabitants of the Kurile islands are more able to purchase good clothes than the Kamtschadales; for the former can purchase for one sea-beaver as much as the latter can for twenty foxes, and one beaver costs no more trouble than five foxes: for he must be a good hunter who catches more than ten foxes in the winter, and a Kurile thinks himself unlucky, if he does not catch three beavers in the feafon, besides which numbers are thrown upon the shore by forms.

The diet of the Kamtschadales confists chiefly in fish, which, when they have caught, they divide into fix parts; the fides and tail are hung up to dry; the back and thinner part of the belly are prepared apart, and generally dried over the fire; the head is laid to four in pits, and then they eat it like falt fish, and esteem it much, though the smell is fuch that a stranger cannot endure it: the ribs, and the flesh which remains upon them they hang up and dry, and afterwards pound for use; the larger bones they likewise dry for food for their dogs: in this manner they prepare the principal article of their diet.

The fecond favourite food is called caviar, which is made from the roes of fish, which they prepare in different ways. They never take a journey without dried caviar, and with a pound of this a Kamtschadale can subsist for a great while without any other provision; for every birch and alder tree furnishes him with bark, which, with the Vos. II.

dried caviar, makes him an agreeable meal. There is a principal dish at all feasts and entertainments, called filaga, which they make by pounding all forts of different roots and berries, with the addition of caviar, and whale and seal's fat.

Before the conquest of the peninsula by the Russians, they seldom used any thing but plain water, unless when they made merry; then they drank water which had stood some time upon mushrooms. Now they will drink any kind of spirits as fast as their conquerors. After dinner they drink water, and when they go to bed at night, they set a vessel of water by them with snow or ice to keep it

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cold, and always drink it up before morning.

Horses are very scarce in Kamtschatka. They merely serve during fummer for the carriage of merchandize and effects belonging to the crown, and for the convenience of travellers. Dogs, however, abound in this country, and ferve all the purpoles of carriage. They are fed without difficulty or expence: in summer, which is their season of rest, little care is taken of them; they know how to provide for themselves, by ranging over the country and along the fides of lakes and rivers; and the punctuality with which they return, is one of the most striking proofs of the fidelity of these animals. When winter arrives their labour and flavery begin anew, to support which it is necessary that these dogs should be extremely vigorous. They are not, however, remarkably large, but resemble pretty much our shepherd dogs. Every inhabitant poffesses at least five of these, which they use when they travel; when they go to the forests to cut wood; and for the conveyance of their effects and provisions, as avell as their perfons. These dogs are harnessed to a sledge two and two together, with a fingle one before as a leader. This honour is bestowed on the most intelligent, or the best trained dog; and he understands wonderfully the terms used by the conductor to direct his course. The cry of tagtag turns him to the right, and kougha to the left; the intelligent animal understands it immediately, and gives to the rest the example of obedience: ab, ab, stops them, and ba makes them fet off. The number of dogs that it is necessary to harness depends upon the load; where it is little more than the weight of the person who mounts the fledge,

fledge, it is confidered as a common fledge, and the team confifts of five dogs. (See the plate.) The harness is made of leather. It pattes under the neck, that is, upon the breaft of these steeds, and is joined to the sledge by a strap three feet long, in the manner of a trace: the dogs are allo fallened together by couples passed through their collars, and these collars are frequently covered with bear-skin, by

way of ornament.

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The form of the fledge is like that of an oblong basket, the two extremities of which are elevated in a curve. Its length is about three feet, and its breadth scarcely exceeds one foot. This kind of basket, which composes the body of the sledge, is of very thin wood; the fides are of open work, and ornamented with straps of different colours. The feat of the charioteer is covered with bear-skin, and raised about three feet from the ground, upon four legs, which are fastened to two parallel planks three or four inches broad; these planks ferve as supports and skates. The driver has nothing in his hand but a curved flick, which ferves him both for a rudder and whip. Iron rings are suspended at one end of the flick, as well for ornament as for the fake of encouraging the dogs by the noise which these kind of bells make, and which are frequently jingled for that purpose: the other end is sometimes pointed with iron, to make an easier impression upon the ice, and ferves at the fame time to guide the ardour of these animals. Dogs that are well trained have no need to hear the voice of the conductor: if he strike the ice with his flick they will go to the left; if he strike the legs of the fledge they will go to the right; and, when he wishes them to stop, he has only to place the stick between the fnow and the front of the fledge. When they flacken their pace, and become careless and inattentive to the signals or to his voice, he throws his slick at them; but then the utmost address is necessary to regain it, as he proceeds rapidly along; and this is reckoned one of the strongest tests of the kill of the conductor, 1295

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The GYPT is an extensive country in Africa, lying between thirty and thirty-fix degrees east longitude, and between twenty-one and thirty-one degrees of north latitude. It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Red Sea and Ishmus of Suez, which divide it from Arabia on the east; by Abyssinia or Ethiopia on the fouth; and by the deserts of Barca and Nubia on the west.

This kingdom was originally of finall extent, confifting only of a narrow tract of land on the banks of the river Nile. As it increased, it became divided into Upper and Lower Egypt; and by some antient authors it is faid to confift of three parts, viz. Upper Egypt, or Thebais; the Middle Egypt, or Heptanomis; and Lower Egypt, the best part of which was the Delta, or that part encompassed by the branches of the Nile in the torm of the Greek delta, That region which was called Lower Egypt and the Delta was, in the early ages, a gulph of the fea. Even at the time of the Crusades, about seven hundred years ago, it is afcertained that there were feveral places at the fea-fide which are now a confiderable way inland. To account for this fact, it appears that there is a continual accession to the Delta, by the mud which the river Nile annually brings thither from the upper regions of Ethiopia. All Egypt, properly fo called, is, perhaps, the gift of that river, and has been gained from the fea.

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Egypt will claim the admiration of our youthful readers, on account of the multitude of its inhabitants and cities:—
the cultivation of the arts:—the fertility of its foil:—and for the finpendous edifices, which almost exceed the bounds of credibility. According to Diodorus Siculus, who wrote a history of Egypt, and who is faid to have visited every place of which he makes mention, the Egyptians had eighteen

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eighteen thousand cities, the chief of which was called by themselves the city of the Sun, but by the Greeks it was denominated Thebes. The walls of this celebrated city were more than seventeen miles in circumference. Busiris, who is said to have been the founder, and many of his successors, adorned it with magnificent buildings, statues, and immense obelishs, so that no city under the sun could vie with this city. It was dedicated to the god Jupiter, hence it was called Diospolis; its magnitude was such as to require a hundred gates for the convenience of its inhabitants; from this circumstance it was denominated Hecatompylos; and from each of these hundred gates twenty thousand sighting men and two hundred chariots could be sent forth upon any emergency.

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Of all the amazing works of the Egyptians the pyramids and labyrinth deserve the most attention. According to the best writers, the first pyramid covers a space of more than eleven acres. The north fide measures fix hundred and ninety-three feet; the perpendicular height is four hundred and ninety-three feet; the ascent, or flant fide, is equal to the length of the bafe, or fix hundred and ninety-three feet. Twenty years were necessary to accomplish this work, during which three hundred and fixty thousand workmen were constantly employed. The labyrinth, which is a fepulchre built by King Miris, is not more celebrated for its finpendous fize than for an almost inimitable contrivance, by which those who entered it could not, but with the extremest difficulty, find their way back without the affistance of an experienced guide. Transfer judgland

The Egyptians, like the Chinese, have always boasted of their antiquity, pretending to have records for ten, twenty, and even fifty thousand years. For these, however, we may venture to affirm there cannot be the smallest authority. The early parts of their history are so much involved in obscurity and sable, that it is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to six any date to the first population of Egypt. Some learned men have conjectured, that not long after the general division of the earth among the sons of Noah, Ham with his family retired to this sertile tract, and that Misraim, or Menes, was the first who assumed the title of king;

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that, after his death, Egypt was divided into feveral small principalities, which were governed by their respective fovereigns. That Menes is the first mortal king acknowledged by the Egyptians is certain; but it cannot be fo eafily afcertained whether he was the same Menes, or Mifraim, the grandion of Noah. But whatever be the period at which the Egyptian Menes reigned, he was preceded by a fet of immortals, who, by the Egyptian accounts, had left him the kingdom in a very deplorable fituation, for the whole country, excepting Thebes, was a morals; the people were destitute of religion, and indeed of every kind of knowledge which could render life comfortable and happy. Menes diverted the course of the Nile, which, before that time, had washed the foot of a fandy mountain near the borders of Libya, built the city of Memphis, and instructed his fubjects in useful knowledge.

From the time of Menes the Egyptian chronology is filled with a lift of three hundred and thirty kings, who reigned about fourteen hundred years, without leaving any traces of celebrity behind them. The first distinct piece of history which we have relating to Egypt, is the irruption of the Shepherds, by whom the country was overwhelmed, and at length subdued. But whether this revolution happened in the vast interval just mentioned, or before or after, cannot be known. These shepherds have been supposed, by some writers, to have come from Arabia; by others, however, it has been contended that they were Cathites, who had been expelled from Babylon by the fons of Shem at the fecond dispersion. Unwilling to remain at home, indigent and inactive, or unable, perhaps, to refift the shock of some powerful foe, they abandoned a region which they could no longer possess in tranquillity, precipitated themselves into Egypt, drove the difunited tribes of Ham from the most fertile part of their territories at the upper part of the Delta, which at that time had acquired the confiftency of a morals; drained, however, by the fhepherds, it foon became a temperate, beautiful, and highly fertile region.

For the space of two centuries and an half, this bold and enterprising people kept possession of Middle and Lower Egypt; in the course of which they discovered many useful

inventions,

inventions, and fent out colonies, from time to time, in quest of new settlements. Two hundred and sifty-nine years after their arrival in Egypt, the posterity of the original natives, not sinding sufficient accommodation in Upper Egypt, to which they had hitherto been confined, or envying the success of their fortunate invaders commenced hostilities against them; and, after a long, doubtful, and bloody contest, the shepherd-race were obliged to retire. They separated into several bodies, and migrated into Phænicia, Syria, Greece, and other regions, carrying with them their inventions and improvements.

This memorable revolution happened not long before the descent of Jacob from Canaan to Egypt. The land of Gothen, that had been evacuated by the expulsion of the thepherds, was allotted as a fettlement to him and his family; and hence we fee the reason why shepherds were an abomination to the Egyptians;* for by them they had been formerly conquered, cruelly treated, and driven from all their antient possessions. The posterity of Jacob retained this province for more than two hundred years, when they were permitted to depart for the land of Canaan; but, foon after their departure, the reigning Egyptian monarch, attended by the prime of the nobility and a powerful army, went in purfuit of them, in order either to reduce them to the former state of flavery, or to deftroy them unarmed and defenceles in the Wilderness. The interposition of heaven frustrated the horrid purpose, rescued the Israelites from the jaws of destruction, and overthrew Pharaoh with all his host, + This happened in the year 1491 before Christ.

The effects of this awful judgment were felt in Egypt for many ages. Deprived of its strength and glory it remained for a long time without any regular form of government. In process of time it united under one head, and acquired new vigour. The Egyptian name again became famous. The arts and sciences were cultivated, but never brought to maturity. Several circumstances contributed to retard the literary progress of this people. They had no way of communicating their ideas but by hieroglyphics, which, at best,

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^{*} See Genefis, 46th chap. 34th verfe.

⁺ See Exodus, 14th chapter.

was a very imperfect and doubtful method. Commerce was unknown to them, and, it is faid, that strangers who went thither on business, were punished with death or slavery. Specimens of their skill in architecture, sculpture, and geometry remain, but these display their industry rather than their taste. The Greeks, indeed, are said to have derived their science from Egypt, but this was probably inconsiderable, otherwise Pythagoras, who travelled thither in pursuit of knowledge, would not have facrificed an hecatomb on the discovery of the forty-seventh proposition of the first book of Euclid; nor Thales an ox, on finding out the method of inscribing a rectangled triangle in a circle, after having studied mathematics in Egypt.

The chronology of the Egyptian history is extremely confused; and though we have very full accounts of the reign of Sefostris, a monarch of that country, yet it is very difficult to afcertain the period in which he flourished. Some writers suppose that he was the Pharaoh who was drowned in the Red Sea, but Sir Isaac Newton,* with great reason, contends that he is no other than Sefac, who took Jerusalem in the reign of Rehoboam, the fon of Solomon, and began his reign a thousand and two years before Christ. Sesoftris was the first great warrior whose conquests are recorded with any degree of diffinctness. The following is a brief account of this monarch. His father ordered all the children in his dominion who were born on the same day with him to be publicly educated, to pass their youth in his son's company, and to be treated in every respect as he was, being perfuaded that those who had been the constant compa-

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^{*} Sir Isaac Newton shews, in his Chronology, that Sesostris, Bacchus, and Osiris, who are all mentioned in history as different perions, were no other than one and the same person, viz Sesac, designated by different names. He observes, that they all lived about the same time:—were all kings of Egypt, reigned at Thebes, adorned that city, and were powerful both by land and sea:—all three were great conquerors, and carried on their conquests by land through Asia as far as India:—all three came over the Hellespont, by which they were in danger of losing their army:—all three conquered Thrace, and thence returned into Egypt:—all three left pildars with inscriptions of their conquests, and therefore he concludes that all three must be one and the same king of Egypt. See the Chronology of Antient Kingdoms amended, by Sir Isaac Newton, p. 193. Edit. 1728.

zions of his youth would prove the most faithful ministers and foldiers. They were inured to the most laborious exercifes, and when the old king imagined they were fufficiently educated in the martial course which he designed them to follow, they were fent, by way of exercifing their abilities, against the Arabians. In this expedition Selostria proved fuccessful, and subdued a people who had never before been conquered. He was afterwards fent to the wellward, and conquered the greatest part of Africa. While he was on this expedition his father died. He then prepared to fulfil a certain prediction, by which he was to conquer the whole world. As he was aware that this business must take up a long time, he made all the necessary preparations for fo great and important an enterprise. The kingdom he divided into thirty-fix provinces, and endeavoured to fecure the affections of the people by gifts both of money and land. He forgave all those who had been guilty of offences. and discharged the debts of his soldiers. Having constituted his brother regent, with some restrictions, he marched at the head of an army, confifting of fix hundred thousand foot, twenty-four thousand horse, and twenty-seven thoufand chariots. Befides these he had two mighty fleets at fea; of thefe one was defigned to make conquests in the west and the other in the east; for which purpose one was built on the Mediterranean, and the other on the Red Sea. The former of these conquered Cyprus, the coast of Phoenicia, and several of the islands called Cyclades; the latter conquered all the coasts of the Red Sea, with several of its iflands.

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With his land forces Sesostris conquered Lybia, Ethiopia, and Arabia; in 794, B. C. he took and plundered Palestine, Syria, and Persia; he marched through Asia, and penetrated farther east than Darius. He also invaded Europe, and subdued the Thracians; and that the same of his conquests might long survive him, he erected columns in the several provinces that he had subdued; and many ages after this, inscriptions might be read in different parts of Asia, Sesostris, the king of kings, has conquered this territory by the power of his arms. Thrace, therefore, has been generally

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thought to be the utmost boundary of this mighty monarch's conquests, for beyond this country his pillars were no where to be met with. Besides these pillars, he left also statues of himself, two of which were to be seen in the time of Herodotus: one on the road between Ephesus and Phocæa, and the other between Smyrna and Sardis.

At his return home Sefouris employed his time in encouraging the fine arts, and in improving the revenues of his kingdom. He erected a hundred temples to the gods for the victories he had obtained, and mounds of earth were heaped up in feveral parts of Egypt, where cities were built for the reception of the inhabitants during the inundations of the Nile. Some canals were also dug near the city of Memphis to facilitate navigation, and the communication of one province with another. At length, after a reign of forty-four years, Sefostris became blind, and laid violent bands upon himself. He is generally represented as behaving with great clemency towards those who fell into his hands through the fate of war. By others, however, it is faid that he treated his captive prisoners with such unheardof barbarity, as to oblige them to deliver themselves by a violent death from a fervitude fo intolerable. On certain occasions he is faid to have had his chariot drawn by kings yoked together. Observing, on a particular occasion, one of the kings, who drew his chariot, to look back upon the wheels with great earnestness, he demanded the cause of his attention; to which the unhappy prince replied: "O king, the going round of the wheel brings to my mind the viciflitudes of fortune; for as every part of the wheel is uppermost and lowermost by turns, so it is with men; who one day fit upon a throne, and on the next are reduced to flavery." This answer brought the insulting conqueror to his fenses; he discontinued the barbarous practice, and ever after treated his captives with the greatest humanity

(This history of Egypt will be continued in the next number.)

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PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

On Taste, Literature, and the Art of Composition.
CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO
HIS SON.

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My dear George,

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IN the present letter I mean to finish what I had intended to fay on the subject of rhetorical figures. I shall. therefore, confine myself to the comparison or simile, and fome other figures that occur most frequently; for to proceed through the whole mass of tropes and figures enumerated by professed rhetoricians, would appear not merely unprofitable, but even tirefome. We have already briefly remarked the difference between fimilies and metaphors: the metaphor-is a comparison implied but not expressed. In a fimile the refemblance is formally expressed. The metaphor is, therefore, more adapted to passion; for when the passions are high, the mind cannot stop to go through all the parts of a regular comparison. The comparison also purfues the refemblance longer than the nature of a metaphor admits; as, "The actions of princes are like those great rivers, the courses of which are feen by every one. and their fources known only by a few."

Similies afford pleasure by representing the agreement or disagreement of objects, by the introduction of new objects, and by the greater light which they throw upon the subject, for which reason Cicero calls them "orationis lumina." Contrary to the nature of metaphors, comparisons cannot be introduced when the passions are too violently excited. We may venture to say that Mr. Addison uses this figure improperly, where Lucia bids Portius sarewel; his

answer is in a studied simile:

"Thus o'er the dying lamp th' unsteady flame.

Hangs quiv'ring at a point, leaps off by fits

And falls again, as loth to quit its hold;

Thou must not go, my soul still hovers on thee,

And can't get loose."

CATO, Act. 3. sc. 2.

They ought not to be introduced too frequently, for the finest

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finest strokes of genius, when often repeated in this way. are certain to difgust. The design of a comparison is either to explain or embellish. The most abstract reasoning admits of them. See Mr. Harris concerning the difference between fense and imagination, which he compares to water and wax receiving impressions; they are, however, more commonly defigned to embellish discourse: to this purpose the author of Fingal uses a very fine one in the third book, when describing the battle.

"The groan of the people spread over the hills: it was like the thunder of night, when the cloud burfts on Cona, and thousand ghosts shrick at once on the hollow wind."

And again near the beginning of that poem:

"I beheld their chief fay, Moran, tall as a glittering tock. His spear is a blasted pine. His shield the rising moon! He fat on the shore like a cloud of mist on the filent hill."

See also Virgil's description of Orpheus's descent into hell. In it the language is remarkably foft and fimple. Mr. Addison is generally happy in his comparisons; but it would be endless to give the examples, and I therefore refer you to his works in general, more especially to his esfays upon the pleasures of the imagination. There are some rules necessary to be observed with respect to the use of this figure.

1st. Comparisons or fimilies ought to be founded on a likeness neither too obvious nor too remote: if the likeness is too obvious it disgusts, if too remote it perplexes; in the one case the reader easily perceives it, and theretherefore conceives the writer to be a person of inferior genius; in the other case it savours of affectation and pedantry. Some of Milton's feem of too obvious a kind, where he compare Eve to a Dryad, and the bower of Paradife to the arbour of Pomona. For there appears no art or ingenuity in faying one arbour is like another, or that a woman refembles a wood nymph.

2dly. They ought not to be too trite or common; fuch as comparing a violent passion to a tempest; virtue to the fun; one in diffress to a flower drooping its head.

3dly. They should not be drawn from objects quite unknown, for thefe, instead of throwing light upon a subject.

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can only serve to render it more obscure; and this leads me to remark a fault very common to our modern poets. They copy the antients in comparing, for instance, a valiant man to a lion, which was an object familiar to the latter though not so to us. Now, according to Cicero, the simile should be something well understood; it would therefore be more proper to compare a lion to a valiant man, than to say a valiant man is like a lion; since every one understands what is meant by a man sighting bravely, but very sew know any thing about a lion but what they have learned from antient writers.

4thly. They must never be taken from metaphysical ideas, with which sew are acquainted, but from natural objects; this is a fault common to many of the poets, which were most admired in the reign of Charles II., a fault excellently exposed in Dr. Johnson's incomparable criticisms on Cowley.

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vulgar objects; they are intended to embellish not to debase the style. Homer is blamed for this, though unjustly; for things that appear low and mean now, might be sufficiently respectable in ruder ages. But Mr. Burke can never be excused, whose refined education and habits ought to have led him to look for his similies elsewhere than in the slaughter-house or the fish-market.

The next figure which it is necessary to mention is the antithesis. By this we bring two objects together of different or contrary qualities, in order to fet off or depreciate the one more effectually. "White never appears fo bright as when it is near black; fo good and worthy actions shine with greatest bustre when contrasted with bad." In this figure both the things contrasted should bear a resemblance in some respects, that the antithesis may appear stronger in the circumftances wherein they differ. We have an excellent instance of this figure in Cicero's oration for Mile, where he shows with how much ease he might have killed Clodius, and yet that he faved him when in his power. This figure should not be attempted too frequently, but only where the circumstances are very favourable. We ought carefully to avoid all quaint expressions, or what are Vol. II. called called points. Seneca abounds in this kind of antithefis, which is a plain fign of a degenerate tafte, the there is

Two other figures I think it necessary to mention together, as they are closely allied, and these are interrogation and exclamation; from the discreet use of these, and the former in particular, a discourse receives both strength and beauty. We have many fine instances of this in the poetical and prophetical parts of Scripture. " God is not a man that he should lie, nor the Son of man that he should repent. Hath he faid, and shall he not do it?" The cause of this fublimity of expression will be very evident, if the sense is preferved, and the words thrown out of this interrogative form. "What he hath faid he will do, and what he hath fpoken he will make good." Also St. Matthew, ch. xi. v. 7 and 9. " And as they departed, he began to fay unto the multitude concerning John. What went ye out into the wilderness to fee? A reed shaken with the wind: but what went we out for to fee; a man clothed in foft raiment? Behold they that wear foft raiments are in kings houses: but what went ye out for to see? A prophet, year I fay unto you, and more than a prophet." See also Acts xxvi. 26. You will also find a very good one in Longinus's fection on interrogation.

Exclamation is a stronger figure than the former. The best rule that can be given with regard to it, is, that you should attend to the manner in which the pattion you defcribe would naturally vent itself. The figure must be feldom used, as it will appear very ridiculous, unless where

the passions of the hearers are much inflamed.

It may not be improper in this place to take notice of the conduct of some writers, who fill their books with points of admiration! as if the points were sufficient to produce that passion by a magical power, when their sentiments are perfectly frigid. The mention of points also leads me to remark another trick which has been much employed by modern authors, i. e. filling their writings with black lines, as if every fentence was so important as to deferve applause. We may call this a typographical figure, and it is well adapted to fuch contemptible writers as Sterne, and the herd of novelifts, who have nothing either in their matter or crucem

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ftyle to attract attention. There was another custom used not long ago, which modern writers have justly laid afide; they wrote every word which they thought emphatic in Italic characters; though this may be very proper with respect to some very energetic words, yet the too frequent use of them only dazzles the fight without informing the understanding. But to return; there is another figure called vision, by which we describe a thing that is past or absent as if paffing immediately before our eyes: by it we place things in a very lively manner before our readers, an example of which may be found in Cicero's fourth oration against Catiline. "Cum vero mihi proposui regnantem Lentulum," &c. It is not easy to give any rules concerning the management of this figure; it requires, indeed, great caution, and its use ought to be almost exclusively redricted to very passionate orations.

Repetition is another very warm figure; by this "we fix upon the most material words of a sentence, and repeat them, in order to make the impression the stronger." See an example of this in Virgil, when Orpheus laments his lost wife Eurydice.

"Te, dulcis conjux te, solo in littore secum

To the same purpose Mr. Pope.

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"By foreign hands thy dying eyes were clos'd,
By foreign hands thy decent limbs compos'd,
By foreign hands thy humble grave adorn'd,
By strangers honour'd and by strangers mourn'd."

The last figure I shall mention is climax or amplification; that is, when great incidents are accumulated one upon another, and at last brought to a point, like a tall obelish or a lofty spire. By this we ennoble what is familiar, exaggerate what is wrong, and increase the strength of arguments, set them in a true light, or skilfully manage a passion. The common instance of this figure is that celebrated passage of Cicero: "Facinus est vincire civem Romanum; scelus verberare, prope paricidium, necate; quid dicam in

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crucem tollere," Shakespear also affords a beautiful example. and Garden. We haftened to the Menagerie.

bus : toods vi The cloud-capt towers, 199 70 massion not The gargeous palaces, the folemn temples,

The great globe itself, And all that it inherit, shall dissolve,

And like the baseless fabric of a vision,

Leave not a wreck behind." orden. The earth was enrich! Called help lemible to the

of the trees money was in a traily the birth of one VISITS TO THE BOTANICAL GARDEN. to remove the the more than the second action of the second

Pediona sew-sid to an Fourth DAY, 1551 wouldow aminole

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HAVE a great piece of news for you, my dear I Gustavus." " Ah! what is it?" " Some days fine ten caravans of live animals arrived at the Botanical Garden." "Ten caravans of live animals! Is it possible; and you did not tell me sooner? I would have left every thing to go and vifit them." . "I thought it best to give them some time to settle themselves. They come from a great distance." "Whence do they come?" "From Holland, and originally from Africa, and the hottest provinces of America." "Let us go directly to the Menagerie; and by the way tell me what animals are come. Are they very rare ones? Are they fierce? Are they tame?" "They are of all forts, more and less tame, more and less fierce, more and less rare. Almost all are birds, among which you will fee the king of the vultures; the caffowary, which is as large as an offrich; the royal bird; and the hocco, a species of pheasant of a fine shining black. I hear that there are also arrived some storks; a kind of stag, from the banks of the Ganges, called axis; a porcupine; some Angora goats; and feveral pairs of filver pheafants from China." "And are the elephants come too?" "No; but they will foon be here: they are preparing a house for them." " How I long to fee all these foreign animals! The cabinet of natural history is grand, but the animals there are only stuffed. There is nothing like seeing them alive." mOthern are only tailened to the Rin by a dender attivate

Our conversation had insensibly brought us to the Botanical Garden. We haftened to the Menagerie. It was open. Citizen Cassel was walking contentedly about; and Gustavus soon perceived by his air that the Menagerie began to be replenished. Besides, mourning has a period; and fince in fociety people commonly comfort themselves so foon for the loss of a man, that of a lion may also be forgotten. The caffowary renders Caffel less sensible to the loss of the great mandril, as in a family the birth of one child causes the death of another to be less felt. Gustavus also perceived that the nose of Citizen Cassel was well again. Nothing was now feen but a flight fcar. This was another reason for satisfaction. In short, so lively an expression of joy sparkled in the eyes of the keeper of the Menagerie, that Gustavus ventured to speak to him, which he had not dared to do at their first interview.

"Well," faid he, "you have, then, received a great number of animals fince our last visit? Will you be so good as to shew them to us?" With pleasure," replied Cassel; "come in, and let us begin with the porcupine.

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"Its whole body, as you fee, is fluck with formidable pointed quills. It grunts like a hog; but in all other respects it differs from that animal, and more refembles the hare or the beaver; it has a short head like the beaver, and, like the hare, a cloven lip, round flat ears, and feet armed with claws. You can fearcely judge of its countenance, for it commonly remains motionless in a corner, hiding its feet and head, and only prefents to the spectator its body, rolled up into a ball, and fluck round with darts. I will make it change its place by means of this long pole, which I will pass through the grate. Do you see how quiet it is? It thinks itself fo fecure under this wood of spears, that it will not ftir. One must persist a long time with the pole to oblige it to fly. Now it moves. It is going to creep up into another corner. The porcupine has the power of erecting and moving its quills, but not that of darting them, as was formerly believed, to a great distance, and with sufficient force to pierce and wound deeply. In fact, when the animal is enraged, and shakes its quills, as some of them are only faitened to the skin by a slender thread,

they easily fall. Travellers relate, that when the porcupine encounters the ferpents, with which it is in a flate of perpetual hostility, it forms itself into a ball, hiding its head and feet, and rolling upon them, with its prickles pierces them to death, without running any risk of being wounded. It is, however, neither wild nor favage, but only jealous of its liberty. It gnaws wood with its fore-teeth, which are ftrong and fharp, and would foon break through the door of its den, if it was not made of iron. I once put one into a barrel, thinking that it would be very fecure, but, in the fpace of one night, it worked fo hard, that it gnawed a way through, and got out. Although a native of the torrid regions of Africa, this creature will live and multiply in more temperate climates, fuch as those of Peria, Spain, and Italy, I feed it, without difficulty, on bread, cheefe, and fruits.

Now cast your eyes on the king of the vultures. This bird is remarkable for the beauty of its plumage; but it is of that class of birds diftinguished by low gluttony and voracity, who are attracted by the fcent of carcales, and only combat the living when they cannot fatiate themselves upon the dead. In a word, it is a vulture; and the vulture is among birds what the tiger is among quadrupeds. This bird is a native of South America; its head and neck are bare of feathers, a circumstance peculiar to the vulture species; its beak is red, and the base is surrounded with a broad orange-coloured fkin, riting on each fide to the top of the head, the eyes are encircled with a fearlet skin, and the iris has the colour and luftre of pearl. Its head and neck are covered with a fine red; below the back part of the head rifes a little tuft of black down. It would be tedious to make you remark all the varieties of its plumage, composed of red, black, yellow, aurora colour, and grey; you may fludy them yourfelf, by examining the bird. The king of the vultures is a rare bird, and is only found in Mexico and New Spain. It dishonours the title of king, which is improperly given to it, for it is neither clean, noble, nor generous. It attacks none but the weakest animals, and feeds on rats, ferpents, lizards, and even on the excrements of man and other animals; accordingly it has a

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very bad fmell, and the favages themselves cannot eat its slesh to and a ment doplar draw temporal and around one.

"Here is, perhaps, the most extraordinary of all birds. Do you observe its gigantic fize, and its body covered with black plumage, which more refembles hair than feathers? and those five or fix stumps, like the quills of the porcupine, which fill the place that its wings ought to occupy? and those enormous legs, which are like the trunk of a young oak? and that maffy head, furmounted with a black helmet, of a substance resembling horn? and those red pendancs, which ferve to adorn its neck? and its formidable countenance? This is the cassowary. The Dutch were the first who showed this bird in Europe. They brought it from the Isle of Java, in 1597, on their return from their first voyage to the East Indies. You are, above all, furprized at the fingular formation of its wings. It has been faid, that these wings were given to the cassowary to assist it to move more rapidly; but I do not fee that thefe few featherless frumps can be of any use to it, either in flying or running. Some pretend that it uses them like fwitches, to strike with; but I have never yet perceived that it employs them for this purpole. Its best desence is in its stout active legs. Some Dutch travellers relate, that it kicks behind like a horfe. I rather believe that it darts forward on its antagoniit, and throws him down by means of its feet, with which it violently strikes his breast. It has, as you fee, very firong hard talons. Observe it walking into its cage; it is very aukward; yet it is faid, that in India it is swifter than the best runner. "Swiftness," says Buffon, " is so much the attribute of birds, that the heaviest of this family are, however, lighter in the course than the lightest of the beafts on the earth."

Here Citizen Cassel sinished his exhibition. Gustavus, surprized at so abrupt a conclusion, said to him: "But this is not all. You certainly must have more animals to shew us: we know that you have received ten caravans." "It is true," replied he; "but none are entrusted to my care, except those that have something savage in their nature. The Menagerie is a prison, in which none are confined but those who would abuse their liberty. These dens

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are dungeons. Would it be just to confine there the deer, the hind, the axis, all those innocent animals which live only on grafs, and may be careffed without danger? Many of these are come from Holland; they have been placed in the garden amid the grass; little sheds have been built for them, and they are only separated from the public by a locked bar, through which they may be feen, and fed out of the hand. There came also with the king of the vultures and the porcupine feveral interesting birds, whom it would have been wrong to lodge by the fide of bears, wolves, and monkeys. Several Chinese pheasants and storks have been turned loofe near the basin. These innocent and peaceable birds there enjoy complete liberty, and find water and greens. Thus, by gentle manners, and by injuring no one, we live more tranquil, more fatisfied, and ameliorate our condition." "It must be confessed," said Gustavus to Citizen Cassel, "that your situation is sufficiently dangerous. You are the keeper of a formidable household; for these animals, all mischievous and fierce, may revolt, and play you some bad turn. Without mentioning those white bears, who lie on the ground, and make believe to be afleep; and those apes, that scratch the face with their claws; and those young wolves that eat sheep already. I should not like to be near a bird which can throw down a man with a blow of its foot, and pierce his bosom." However dangerous may be my fituation," replied Caffel, " it has charms for me. I only complain that it is not fufficiently perilous. I would give my little all to fee this Menagerie peopled with all kinds of wild beafts. I should like to be able to say to you, there is the tiger, there is the panther, there is the leopard, there is the jackal, the hyena, the lion. Do you know what is the idea which flatters me the most at this moment? What I am ambitious of? It is to be ient into the deferts of Africa, to fnatch from them all these formidable animals, and to bring them into France. The success of my expedition would be the more certain, as I have passed all my life among savage beasts. I know how they are subdued; besides, it is less difficult to tame tigers than certain men."

After having thanked Citizen Cassel for his reception of

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as, we asked him where we should find that beautiful bird, also arrived from Holland, which is called the regal bird. He directed us towards the amphitheatre; but passing by the basin, we turned a moment to look whether we could discover the storks in its inclosure. We saw them, and Gustavus was so much the better pleased, as he knew them already by reputation, from the sable of "the fox and the

flork," one of the prettieft of Lafontaine.

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"I fee," faid he, " that the fable is very right, when it fays, that "the flork with its long bill could not take up a mouthful of meat ferved on a broad platter." Its beak is very long indeed." "Yes, my dear Gustavus, but this long beak, fet upon a long neck, is stretched forwards to feek food in the mud of pools, and under water. The stork, who makes very long voyages, passes a part of the year in Egypt, and its bill fuits it wonderfully well after the inundations of the Nile." " What have these storks seen Fgypt ?" "Yes, indeed." "Really, the more I think of these megrations of birds, the more I am surprized at them. Do they understand geography? What compass guides them? For navigators have a compass. They know the direction of the winds; and to go to Egypt it is necessary to be informed of the way. For my part, though I have fludied geography some time, I could not go fix miles from Paris without a guide. The florks, then, are much cleverer than men." " I grant that the inflinct of animals is furprifing and admirable; but this inflinct is given them by Providence. They do not learn it; they receive it at their birth. A stork knows the way to Egypt without having learned it; as we fleep without having learned it, as, without learning it, we thut our eyes at the approach of any object which might injure them. It is not the bird that should be honoured for his instinct, but the Author of Nature, by whom it was beflowed. How many things in the world are incomprehenfible! He who should attempt to explain all, would confound all. He is the wifelt who fees imprefied on all the works of Nature the hand of the Creator, and who, fatisfied with his condition, admires the objects around him, and bleffes Providence daily." "Well, then, let us not reason. Only tell me whether ftorks ever come into France."

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" They pass some months in it. Lorraine and Alsace are the provinces where they most abound. They even build there; and there are few cities or towns in Lower Alface where storks' nests may not be seen on the steeples." " Are thefe birds tame?" "Yes. As their disposition is gentle and unfuspicious, they even appear to seek the society of man. They easily accustom themselves to stay in gardens, which they clear of insects and reptiles. Those who have observed them, tell us, that they may be excited to gaiety by example, and that they join in the sports of children, playing and leaping around them." " O! how you make me tove the flork!" "What I tell you is founded upon the most exact observations. Dr. Hermann, of Strasburgh, faw a flork join a party of children, who were playing at blindman's buff in a garden. It ran in turn when it was touched, and took care to avoid the child who was running after the others." Certainly this must be a very intelligent bird. It has furely more sense than any other." "Well, but the flork is not more honourably distinguished by the qualities of its understanding than by those of its heart. To this bird are attributed, says Buffon, moral virtues, whose appearance is always respectable: temperance, conjugal fidelity, and filial and parental affection. It is faid, that there are, in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, a great number of ftorks, who build their nefts and hatch there. The inhabitants amuse themselves with putting hen's eggs in a stork's nest: when the chickens are hatched, the male stork, on feeing these strange figures, makes a terrible noise, by which he draws round his nest a multitude of other storks, who peck the female to death, whilft her mate utters most lamentable cries. What is very certain, is, that the stork feeds its young for a long time, and never leaves them till they are fufficiently strong to defend and provide for them-Celves; that when they begin to flutter out of the nest, and try themselves in the air, it carries them on its wings; that it defends them from dangers; and that it has been feen, when unable to fave them, to prefer perishing to deferting them. A celebrated history is related, in Holland; of the ftork of Delft, which, in the fire of this city in 1536, after having vainly attempted to carry off its young ones, fuffered itself e

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itself to be burnt with them. The ftork has been observed to give marks of attachment, and even of gratitude, towards the p'aces and hofts that have received it. It is afferted, that it has been heard to chatter as it passes before the door, as if to give notice of its return, and, at its departure, in the same manner to bid farewel. But these moral qualities are nothing in comparison of the affection and tender care which these birds show to their infirm or aged parents. Young and vigorous storks have often been feen, adds Buffon, to bring food to others which stand on the brink of the neft, and appear weak and languishing, either because they have met with some accident, or because the fork really has, according to the antients, the affecting infinct of foothing old age; and that nature, by placing even in the Hearts of brutes those pious sentiments to which human hearts are too often unfaithful, has chosen to set us an example. The law for maintaining parents was made in honour of them, and called by their name among the Greeks. Aristophanes, on this occasion, indulges in a bitter strain of irony against man. Ælian, the historian, afferts, that the moral qualities of the flork were the first cause of the worship paid to it among the Egyptians, and perhaps it is a remnant of this antient opinion which has caused the vulgar prejudice, particularly common in Germany, that it brings good fortune to the house where it establishes itself." "All that you have told me inspires me with so much respect for the flork, that I should never dare to kill one during my whole life, or even to give it the least pain." "Your respect is perfectly just; for besides all its moral excellencies, this is a very uteful bird. Among the antients it was a crime to kill the ftork, because it is an enemy to noxious animals. In Theffaly the penalty of death was attached to the murder of one of these birds, so precious were they in this country, which they cleared of ferpents. In the east, a part of this veneration for the ftork is ft.ll. preferved. It was not eaten among the Romans. A man whose capricious luxury caufed one to be ferved up, was punished by the ridicule of the people." them A celebrated Ellor tork of Delt, which, (bounitnos ad off) oily in 1989, after

provides used ward theoly's SP's image decay sprayed and or ideas.

THE GIFTS OF FATE.

A Mythological Tale. From the German of Augustus Lafontaine.

A FTER the image of the immortal gods Prometheus had formed two statues of clay. As the beautiful production of his bold attempt flood before him, he viewed his work with an eye of paternal partiality; and called upon all the celeftials to endow them with their choicest gifts. The immortals food around, and admired the creation of the Titan.

"Let us endow them with our choiceft gifts," faid Jupiter. He laid his mighty hand on the breafts of the images, and their breafts heaved under his hand, and life rolled filent and hidden through their veins. Venus cast a propitious fmile upon the living images; and that life, which, filent and hidden, Jupiter had infused into their veins, now sparkled in the speaking eye, glowed on the blooming cheek, beamed from the fublime forehead, and displayed itfelf in the movement of their limbs.

"Twas I gave them fenfibility," fhe exclaimed triumphantly. Pallas imprinted a kifs upon their foreheads. " And I," the calmly replied, "kindled in them the divine spark of wisdom." Their foreheads now discovered the furrowed lines of thought, and a milder, but more beautiful luftre shone from their eyes. Astonished and thoughtful they gazed upon the affembly of immortals that furrounded them. I design was to give it give at the standard was the

Mercury touched the lips of the thinking beings with his wand. "What are we?" they exclaimed: "what were we? whence do we come?"

Apollo placed his lyre in their hands. The Muses danced around them, whilst their fingers flew over the harmonious firings, and they fung the wondrous story of their own nativity. The quest as you ask whatch excess with he new

Amor approached them. The wanton god touched the breast of the man with his torch. Lightning stashed from the eye of the man, and a higher crimion glowed upon his cheeks. His bosom heaved with rapturous palpitations; he extended his arms, and funk upon the breast of the first and The

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born of women, who had that instant also received the touch of Amor's torch. The Graces drew near, and threw a veil over the shoulders of the woman. Her cheeks now blushed a more lovely hue, and the sparkling of her eye, kindled by the torch of Amor, gave place to the soft languishing lustre of virgin delicacy. She hid herself in the veil of the graces, and shunned the rude embraces of the man. Enraged, he attempted to tear away the veil; but scarce had he touched it when his rage subsided; he gazed on the woman with a look of humble supplication, and his voice assumed the soothing tones of persuasion.

Flora smiled upon them. "They are already happy," she said, and beckened. Innumerable flowers befpangled the verdure of the earth, and a bower of roses sprung up around the lovers, and conceased them from the view of the gods. Ceres scattered her seed upon the ground, and blessed it. A rich harvest waved around the bower of roses, and the boughs of the trees bent under a luxuriant load of ripe fruits.

Vulcan presented them with his fire and his arts. June spoke to Jupiter: "Thou hast given them life; I will multiply it." And since that time the gods have named her Lucina. Mars gave the man arms and courage. All the gods bestowed their choicest gifts upon the new-created beings. Prometheus received their favours with grateful satisfaction; and they re-ascended into the blissful mansions of heaven, pleased to leave behind them, upon their maternal earth, a happy humanpair, beings like themselves.

Prometheus alone, tenderly solicitous for the happiness of his creation, penetrated into the solemn, mysterious envern of all-ruling Fate, and befought the mighty goddess to bestow a gift upon the new-created man that should tend to their happiness. The awful goddess similed. "Be it so," she replied; "they shall be more bounteously fas youred by me than by any other of the immortals. I will bestow upon them three gifts."

Prometheus thanked the stern goddess. "Spare thy thanks," she replied, "till thou knowest what my gifts shall be. They are not such gifts as the other gods bestow."

Vol. II.

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"The gods bestow nought but good," said Prometheus

doubtingly. "But name thy gifts, great goddess."

"The gods have given thy men the divine breath of life, and immortality to the children of clay. During one part of every day be the fensibility of man extinguished; let him lie bereft of all his fenses, unconscious of the light of the sun, of the expanded azure of the heavens, or the laughing verdure of the earth. Like an image of clay let him be extended, without any token of life, save the pulse and the heart."

"Tremendous deity!" exclaimed Prometheus affrighted. "Wilt thou destroy what the gods have bounteously conferred? O leave to man the enjoyment of his life, the light of the sun, and the consciousness of his existence."

The goddess of destiny smiled. "I love man," she replied, in a tone of admonition; it is in thy power whether or not thou wilt accept my gifts."

"Thy fecond gift?" great goddefs.

"The gods gave to man that spark of divinity, thought.

A portion of this faculty I will annihilate; I will give him forgetfulness. A light veil shall half conceal the past from his retrospective glance: former scenes shall present themselves to his recollection indistinct and confused, like the dreams of the morning; not clear, lively, and distinct, as the past is viewed by the gods."

" O goddess! and thou sayest thou lovest man? I

tremble to hear thy third gift."

"The gods gave man life. Let him enjoy it; but only for a period. Then shall death, my third gift, put an end to that life. The body, which thou hast formed, shall again return to dust, from whence it came. No more shall he be remembered upon earth; and the breath, which the gods have breathed into him, shall return again to the gods."

Prometheus trembled. "Wilt thou not accept of my gifts?" continued calmly and sternly the godddess: "I revoke them. But know, that without them man cannot be happy. Shouldst thou ever hereafter desire them, call upon me. Fate is ever kind, and bestows her choicest sa-

vours even upon those that difregard them,"

Prometheus

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Prometheus retired from the cavern of Fate overwhelmed with grief. What a spectacle met his view! Under the shadow of the bower sat the man; at a little distance the woman. Their bodies of clay had funk under the powers of that life infused into them by the gods. Their earthly part ftill painfully strove with the active energy of the breath of immortality breathed into them. Sighs arose from their oppressed bosoms. With anxious impatience they expected the moment which should restore strength to their exhausted frames, to minister to their souls in grasping the enjoyment of existence. Dreadful were the hours of conscious imbecillity.

"O goddes!" cried Prometheus, and extended his arms towards the cavern of Fate. A boy with a fmiling countenance, and crowned with a garland of poppies, glided from the cavern through the air, holding in his hand an extinguished and inverted torch, the awful symbol of destruction amongst the gods. In gradually contracting circles he fluttered on pinions, whose motion was unaccompanied with the flightest noise, around the suffering pair; the lustre of their eyes gradually grew dimmer; their eye-lids at length involuntarily closed. Both funk down upon the earth; and a moment's repose banished every fign of life from their countenances and languid members. They slept. Vanished was the painful fen'e of imbecillity joined to consciousness of existence. New vigour pervaded their limbs, and the moment of awaking restored to them the sense of renovated strength. Man gave thanks to the gods for the bleffings of fleep.

They were now completely and long happy; and Prometheus defired not the remaining gitts of the goddels. The woman became a mother; lovely infants sported around them, and multiplied their felicity. The parents fat in their bower of roses, retracing the past scenes of their lives, and the comparison with the present was ever attended with pleasure. Their mutual affection daily increased, and was augmented by the remembrance of the first blissful hours of their existence. The first-born of a mother had pow attained the years of youthful maturity. The impulse of nature led him into the arms of his fifter; and even Prometheus acknowledged, in their mutual passion, the image of that enamoured affection, which joined the first human pair. But in the first human pair he could no more discover the same warmth of tenderness. The fire that once glowed in their breasts had abated; and by the time when the third generation of mankind had appeared on the earth, nothing remained to them but the remembrance of the blissful days of youthful vigour and extatic delights.

The parents of the human race fat mournfully together, unable to refrain from envy, when they contemplated the fond raptures of the youths, and the yielding tenderness of the virgins. "Such we, too, were:" faid the woman to the man. "That time, alas! is fled. How dead are now all our feelings, how extinguished all our powers! Accursed recollection of the scenes of our youth, now only a source of torment to us!" She sunk weeping upon the bosom of

her partner, himfelf in need of confolation.

"O Fate, thy oracle is truth!" exclaimed Prometheus. Borne on a grey, fliadowy cloud, a youth was wafted through the grove; his forehead encircled with night-shade, his garments new chequered with a motly mixture of gaudy hues, now appearing of a dufky caft, in which no particular colour could be accurately diftinguished, and hovered over the first human pair. A tranquil lustre beamed from his eyes, which were no fooner fixed upon them than all the vivid scenes of their youth were divested of their dazzling splendor, and, dimly seen from afar, they appeared to their recollection as invelloped in a cloudy veil. The joys of the prefent day feemed to afford them gratification equal to what they had derived from those of their youth. Their looks became ferene, their bosoms tranquil. They enjoyed present pleasures without comparing them with those of past times, and the flight evils of the present day they endured without repining.

Prometheus now thought with dismay on the third gist of the goddes. The fixth generation of men already peopled the earth. The first of mankind gradually decayed with age and weakness, like Tithonus, beloved of Aurora. Scarcely their voice was left them, and they themselves

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stretched out their hands to the gods, imploring them to take back the hated boon of immortality. Prometheus still dreaded to demand the third gift of Fate. At length he called upon death.

A beautiful youth, placid and gentle of mien, descended on Goffamer's wings, holding a torch almost extinguished in his hand. With mournful countenance he stood before the first human pair. Slowly he inverted his torch, and a smile, expressive of voluptuous delight, gleamed from the countenances of the first of mankind. The woman seebly pressed her partner's hand. "How well I feel!" she exclaimed. "I also," he replied, and cast once more an expiring look of tenderness upon his coeval beloved.

The youth extinguished his torch. A mild paleness overspread the countenances of the dying pair; their eyes
closed; a cold suffiness pervaded their members. Motion
was no more; breath and pulse stopped. Prometheus dug
a grave, and returned their dust to its parent earth. Mourning the dissolution of his beloved work, he quitted the earth,
and descended into the realm of shades. His forrow
thunned the light of the sun.

Suddenly he faw hovering before him two shadowy forms, resemblances of the human beings he bewailed: they glided towards the streams of the lower world. The voice of Fate was heard: that the realm of shades should be the habitation of mankind after death, till purified from earthly imperfections, they should be fit to ascend into the everlatting mansions of the gods.

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Arm in arm the thades of the first of the dead glided along. They heard the voice of Fate, and a solemn tranquillity took place of every apprehension.

Prometheus returned to the earth, and announced to mankind the oracle of Fate. Since that time death became the scope of life, the reward of virtue; and temples were consecrated to the youth with the expiring torch. The principal of these was at Eleuss. In solemn, mysterious rites, men celebrated there that immortal life, which, sown like the grain of Ceres, in its terrestrial grave, germinates and vegetates until it reach the heavens.

FIRST PRIZE ESSAY,

On the Subject for No. 10, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

"Whether the laws of Solon, or those of Lycurgus, were most conducive to the virtue and happiness of mankind?"

BY MASTER DANIEL PARKEN,

Of Dunstable, aged 15 years and seven months.

THE office of the legislator is the most dignified which man can exercise. Faithfully to administer his laws is the highest glory of the fovereign; and strictly to conform to his prescriptions is the condition which entitles man to the benefits and protection of fociety. The lawgiver is endowed with a kind of immortality; his commands are facredly observed, while he is the tenant of the tomb; for to observe them is the interest of mankind. It is of the utmost importance that this influence should be exerted with wisdom and integrity; and, as general happiness entirely depends on general virtue, I think it is an undeniable axiom, that he bests employs the power confided to him, who most advances the happiness of the community.

If corporeal strength and hardihood, if mental infensibility and ignorance be the perfection of our nature, Lycurgus has atchieved it. If abstinence from the comforts of life, and freedom, wild freedom only, be the end of our existence, Lyeurgus obtained it for his Spartans. But if the refinement of our feelings, the cultivation of our minds, and the amelioration of our conduct be most consistent with our natures, and most conducive to our felicity, Solon must be honoured with the praife, and allowed the superiority.

The intention of Lycurgus was, to harden the warrior; the aim of Solon, to form the citizen. The one wished to erect a formidable state; the other endeavoured to harmonize a happy nation. What must have been the lawgiver, who did not encourage theft indirectly, by fuffering it to

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escape with impunity, but who immediately and expressly enjoined it in the education of youth? When the youth of Sparta are named, what honest heart but glows with indignant deteltation? The unoffending infant, to whom nature had denied a perfect form or a healthy constitution, was inhumanly and infamoully exposed to the fury of the blast, or the hunger of the favage race. Those who were fortunate enough to pass this cruel scrutiny were exposed to barbarity yet more severe than death. I will not dwell on this feries of systematic torture. I pass over the open and fcandalous contempt and violation of modelty and decorum, the banishment of the arts and sciences, the permission of fleepy indolence in peace, the muster of the serocious paifions in war, thefe I omit; but who will defend the unmerited tyranny and nameless enormities practifed on the Helots, two thousand of whom, at one time, are faid to have disappeared? Who will contend that patriotism, that courage, that obedience, that fortitude, can compenfate, can expiate, such deliberate corruption of the human character? Allowing a public education all its advantages, yet it undoubtedly extinguished, in a great degree, the fond "charities" of filial affection. Infenfibility to the maternal emotions of nature was encouraged and extolled; and the who dared, but for a moment, regret the loss of a son, was fligmatized as having difgraced herfelf and dishonoured her country. Such was the establishment of Lycurgus.

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Solon, on the contrary, confidering man as a creature endowed with reason and influenced by passions, endeavoured to polish his mind and regulate his heart. By enacting that any one might prosecute any violator of the person or property of a neighbour, he wisely inculcated the principles of philanthropy and benevolence. He repressed the usurpations of the opulent, and prevented the oppression of the poor; but without confounding those distinction of rank, which experience proves necessary to the economy of every civilized society. By forbidding demonstrations of anger in public, he restrained the ebullitions of ungoverned resentment; and by granting the right of making testaments, he restored the natural privileges of property. He discouraged

the

the spirit of avarice, and suppressed mercenary marriages, by forbidding any dowry to be given with the bride. But what particularly must endear him to our feelings, as well as approve him to our judgments, is, that he ordained the most inviolate veneration for the memory of the dead. Yet did not this gentleness of character produce effeminacy of conduct. No one will deny the meed of valour or perfonal bravery to the Athenians. The examples of Alcibiades, Themistocles, Cimon, &c. sufficiently prove the one; and the actions of Cynægirus, as recorded by Justin, and of Chabrias, as related by Cornelius Nepos, abundantly demonstrate the other. But, on the other hand, we must look in vain to the illiterate Lacedæmonians for a Demosthenes, a Pericles, a Xenophon, a Phocion, a Plato, or a Socrates. There the only art was arms, the only virtue valour. If Lycurgus had only taught abstinence and intrepidity; if he had not commanded cruelty and plunder; if he had been contented to make his people only warriors inflead of barbarians; still how far inferior had been his fystem, how nearly allied to our original brutality, how distant from the civilization, refinement, and felicity of Athens. Was his purpose happiness? how absurd the means. Did he look for conquest? how vile the intention.

On these, and various other considerations, I am inclined to believe, that the judicious and discriminating Editors have proposed this thesis rather as a vehicle of sentiment, than a decision on respective merit. For it would argue the strangest folly, or the blindest prepossession, seriously to compare the waste of war with the pleasures of peace, or with amenity and virtue to place in competition ferocity

and ignorance!

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PRIZE ESSAY,

On the Subject for No. 10, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

By Miss JANE LEWIS,

Of North Baddelley, aged 14 years.

This effay is printed, in order to give a view of the arguments on both fides, the preceding writer having declared in favour of Solon, and Miss Lewis in favour of Lycurgus.

CINCE the institution of laws none have engaged the attention of mankind to much as the codes of these two celebrated legislators; the one trying by every gentle method to restore men to their original virtue, the other by one bold ftroke cruthing every allurement to vice. If we confider their different fituations, they will, in a great meafure, account for the difference of their laws. Solon. a simple individual, invested with a transient authority, had feen, by the example of Draco, that the Athenians would not fubmit to the least feverity, he was therefore obliged toframe laws (as he himfelf faid) not the best possible, but the best the Athenians were capable of bearing. Lycurgus, without a predeceffor, was placed at the head of affairs, and eafily overcame every obstacle that presented itself. If we opposed only the auftere and illiterate Spartan to the learned and polished Athenian, we shall most likely be led to think that Solon studied the happiness of his fellow-creatures much more than Lycurgus; but if we view the virtuous Spartan, devoid of riches, and all the evils in their train, happy because he thinks himself more so than the rest of mankind, and whose sole ambition is to serve his country; then place befide him an enlightened Athenian, fighing for wealth, in order to obtain fome diffinction, or elie proudly boafting of his opulence, we feel inclined to transfer the palm to the lacedæmonian.

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The laws of Lycurgus were intended to crush every vi-

public, by furrounding them with rivals, who continually endeavour to excel them, a spirit of emulation is excited; by this mode of education they learn to confider themselves as members of the same family, and acquire a friendship for each other, and love for their country. By the Athenian method the children of the rich think themselves superior to the poor; and though they may gain more knowledge, yet do they feel those noble sentiments which animate the

Spartan's breaft?

It has been urged against Lycurgus, that he made war the only object of his laws. But how can laws, which depriving a nation of mariners and ships, render it incapable of extending its territories through the means of the ocean; which, forbidding it to attack the frontier fortresses of its neighbours, make it equally unable to enlarge them by land; which prohibit it from often making war on the same people, from pursuing a flying enemy, or from enriching itself with its spoils; how can such laws have only war for their object? Are not those, which do not contain such prohibitions, much more likely to inftil wishes inimical to peace ?

What people were ever fo much celebrated as the Spartans for friendship, justice, lenity to the conquered, or obedience to the laws and magistrates? And if Lycurgus inspired fuch fentiments to one nation, is it not reasonable to

suppose that he might to every other?

Some have alledged that he stifled natural feelings; and as proofs, the examples of women who murdered with their own hands their fons convicted of cowardice, and of boys who expired at the altar of Diana, are given; but it was not till the decline of the institutions of Lycurgus that the women affected a ferocious infensibility, and the youth an oftentatious courage; before that period the former were contented with trying to rife superior to the feelings of nature; and it cannot be supposed that one of the most hu mane of legislators should defire such cruelty to be inflicted on the latter. The Diana, at whose firing they were thus chaffiled, was a barbarous divinity, brought by Oreste from Taurica, and to whom the oracle ordered human fa

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crifices to be offered. Lycurgus abolished this horrid custom; but, as an indemnity to superstition, commanded that the punishment of those boys, who were to be scourged for their faults, should be inslicted at her altar.

Thus I have endeavoured to clear this great man from those points which most affect his reputation. The wisdom of his laws have been universally acknowledged; he knew that in every man some passion predominates over all the rest; this passion he has made the love of our country; he has carried it even to enthusiasm. It has been said, that had Solon and Lycurgus changed situations, the former would not have performed such sublime things as the latter, nor the latter such beautiful things as the former. But which is to be preferred; a code of laws beautiful in theory, which places no bounds to our wishes, or one which, satisfying all our necessary wants, leaves us nothing to desire? Surely the latter; and since such are the Jaws of Lycurgus, we may conclude, that they are more "conducive to the happiness and virtue of mankind" than those of Solon.

Atteffation.

I declare, the above to be my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not yet 15 years of age.

JANE LEWIS.

GENTLEMEN,

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I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, that Miss Lewis, aged 14, has not received any affistance in the above essay, either by explanation, suggestion, correction, or in any way, directly or indirectly.

S. E. METCALF, Private Governess.

North Baddesley, Hants, Nov. 4, 1800.

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TRIZE TRANSLATION

FROM SALLUST'S BELLUM CATILINARIUM;

Page 1, beginning, "Omnes homines qui fest student;" and end-

By Master C. W. THOMPSON.

Of Thorp-Arch Seminary, aged 12 years.

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TT becomes all men, who aspire to excel other animals, to prevent, by the most strenuous exertions, their life from being absorbed in obscurity, like that of the brute creation, which are by nature formed the grovelling and fordid flaves of appetite and luft. Now all our potency of action is centered in the foul and body; by the foul we are guided in inquiry, by the body enabled to perform; we enjoy the one in common with the gods, the other with the brates. For which reason it appears to me more eligible to pursue glory by the extensive qualifications of the mind than the powers of bodily strength; and fince the life itself, which we enjoy, is short, to immortalize our memory by every laudable action in our power. For the iplendor of riches and beauty is transitory and frail; virtue is glorious and everlafting. But to afcertain whether warlike atchievements were most indebted for success to strength of body or ability of mind, was for a long time the fource of violent controverly amongst mankind. For before you enter upon action there is need of deliberation; and when you have deliberated, there is need of speedy execution. Thus both being deficient by themselves, they mutually depend on the affiltance of each other. For this reason kings (that being the first title of empire in the world) were, in antient times, divided in their fentiments; fome cultivated the mind, others the body; in those days men, content with their respective poffessions, enjoyed a life untainted with the evils of lawless ambition. But after Cyrus in Asia, and the Athenians and Lacedæmonians in Greece, began to subdue cities and nations, to account the luft of fovereignty a fufficient pretext for war, and to reckon that the greatest glory confisted in the greatest empire;

empire; then at length it was found, by trial and experience, that deep penetration was most serviceable in war. And were kings and rulers to exert the noble endowments of the mind with as much vigour in peace as in war, human affairs would be kept more stable and uniform, nor should you fee property in continual fluctuation, nor all things changed and involved in confusion; for dominion is easily maintained by those arts which were at first used to acquire it. But when once idleness triumphs over industry, when moderation and equity are supplanted by ambition and contemptuous pride, then fortune and manners experience a total change. Thus fovereign power, from being vefted in the less worthy, devolves upon the most excellent. To the powers of the mind, properly conducted, we owe agriculture, navigation, architecture, and all the arts of life. But many men, abandoned to fleep and grovelling appetites, illiterate and unpolished, have spent their lives like people in a strange land, to whom (contrary indeed to nature) the body was a pleasure, the foul a burden: I deem the life and death of these worthy of no distinction, since both are enveloped in filence and obscurity. Now the person that, in my opinion, may be faid truly to live and enjoy life, is he who, engaged in some useful employ, pursues the glory of an illustrious action, or a profitable art; and mankind, in so great a variety, are always guided by a natural predileccords, and the rather tion to some favourite pursuit.

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To promote the welfare of the republic is glorious, and to speak in its favour is by no means despicable. One may acquire renown either in peace or war; and many have been celebrated, as well those who have acted, as those who have recorded the actions of others. And though the glory of the historian is less conspicuous than that of the hero, yet it, nevertheless, appears to me eminently difficult to write a history. First, because the actions are to be dressed in proper diction; and next, because a great many think your animadversions upon crimes, whatever they may be, proceed from malice and envy. When you expatiate on the renowned glory and bravery of illustrious worthies, what

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every one thinks within the sphere of his own performance, he receives with an unprejudiced mind; what you advance beyond this he regards as false and a forgery of your own. . FREMUM HE HAT HAD MEDING AS VID

But I, in the dawn of manhood, like many other young men, was borne by inclination to state-affairs, and there many things thwarted my defires. For instead of modesty, continence, and dignified worth; impudence, avarice, and bribery prevailed; which though my mind, unpolluted with dishonourable practices, abhorred, yet, amidst so many flagrant vices, my tender age was enfnared, and fell a prey to the allurements of ambition. And though I was difengaged from the vicious habits of others, yet the fame ardour for preferment, the obloguy, too, and odium that difquieted the rest, disquieted me. It was not, therefore, my intention) when my mind, liberated from many perplexities and dangers, enjoyed repose, and I myself resolved to spend the remaining part of my life, feeluded from publicb ufinels) to waste a valuable retirement in idlene's and sloth, nor yet employed in fervile offices, when compared with the more noble exercises of the mind, to pass my life in tilling the ground and hunting; but returning to the same study from which, when formerly begun, curied ambition had diverted me, I resolved to write a history of the Roman people, picking and culling, as any thing appeared worthy of record; and the rather, because my mind was unbiassed by hope, fear, and the factions of the state. I shall, accordingly, briefly discuss the story of Catiline's conspiracy; adhering, however, to the truth as flrictly as possible. For I reckon that enterprise eminently remarkable, on account of the Arangeness of the wickedness, and the danger that attended it; concerning the character of which man a few things are to be premised before I begin the narration.

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But I, an the drive of combact like many other young

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

Question-" Whether the laws of Solon, or those of Lycurgus, were most conducive to the virtue and happiness of mankind?"

The first prize has been adjudged to Master D. PARKEN, of Dunstable, aged 15 years and seven months. Attested by his father.

To receive a pair of twelve-inch Globes or Books, value Three Guineas.

The second to Miss ELIZABETH PARKER, of Mettingham, near Bungay, Suffolk, aged 14 years last January. Attested by her father, Joseph Parker, Esq.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Master J. H. DUNSFORD, of Magdaten School, Oxford, aged 14. Attested by the head master, Mr. Ellerton.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The fourth to Miss JANE LEWIS, of North Baddesley, Hants, aged 14. Attested by her governess, Mrs. Metcalf.

To receive Milton's Paradise Lost.

The fifth to Master JOHN COX, of Pentonville, aged 15. At-

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Police Edu-

The fixth to Mafter EBENEZER OSBORN, of Cork, aged 15 years and eight months. Attested by his father and brother.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The seventh to Miss MARY JECKS, of Wisbech, not 15. Attested by her tutor, Mr. Wright.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The eighth to Master HENRY WALTER, of Brigg School, aged 15. Attested by the head master, Mr. Walter, and Mr. Border, usher.

To neceive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The ninth to Master H. W. HENTIG, of Hull Academy, aged 3. Attested by Mr. Ashton, the master.

To receive Allen's History of England.

s years and feven months, or

The tenth to Master G. EDWARDS, of Barnard Castle Grammar School, aged 14 years and four months. Attested by the head master, Mr. Barnes.

To receive Dr. Mayor's Lives of Plutarch abridged.

Very respectable essays have been transmitted to us by Master W. AINGER, and Master J. CLARKE, both of whom are excluded by our rules from receiving a prize this month. Among the following also many are entitled to DISTINGUISHED PRAISE, as little inferior to some which have obtained prizes, and all are deserving of COMMENDATION.

Master Thomas Allies, aged 16, pupil of Mr. George Osborn, of Worcester.

Master Major Ainger, aged 14, pupil of the Rev. George Burges, of Wnittlesea.

Mils Emma Brifce, aged 15, of Mrs. Green's feminary, Upper Grofvenor-threet, Bedford-iquate.

Matter W. Beddome. aged 12 years and fiven months, of Mr. Pal-mer's ichool, Hackney.

Master F. Betts, aged 13 years and eight mouths, pupil of Mr. Comfield, of Northampton.

Mafter J. Brown, aged 15 years and eight months, of Mr. Barnes grammar school, Barnard Cattle.

Matter John Button, aged 14 years, pupil of the Rev. J. Peers, Thorp-Arch

Maker W. R. Clayton, aged 14 years, pupil of Mr. E. Lloyd, of Silchefter.

Master Gregory Clarke, aged 13 years and two months, pupil of Mr. Comfield, of North impton.

Master G. F. Dickjen, aged 13, of Mr. Palmer's academy, Hackney, Miss C. R. Dent. aged 12, of Northampton.

Miss Elizabeth Ewart, aged 13, daughter-in-law of the Rev. John Whitcham, Sharnbrock Vicarage, Bedfordshire.

Master Joseph Fallowsheld, aged 14 years and one month, of the Grammar School, barnard Castle.

Master Edward Grinsteld, aged 13 years and fix months, private pupil of Mr. John Shaw, of Brittol.

Matter John Hird, aged 14 years and one month, of the Grammar School, Barnard Castle.

Miss Mariana Jones, aged 15, pupil of Miss Robins, Worcester. Master Benjamin Henry Jones, aged 13, at Messis. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Mils Sarab Kempson, aged 14, pupil of Mils Robins, Worcester. Mils Anne Lewis, aged 14, ditto.

Mis Amelia Macgragor, aged 15, of Mrs. Green's seminary, Upper Gower-street, London.

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Mafter Samuel Marsom, not 16, pupil of Mr. George Ofborn, Worcester.

Miss Eliza Martineaux, aged 14, of Mrs. Greene's seminary, Upper Gower-street, London.

Master W. Shingleton, aged 15 years and eight months, of Mrs. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Master R. S. Sutherland, aged 15, daughter of Mrs. Sutherland, Woburn.

Master Edward St. Quintin, aged 15 years and seven months, of Mr. Kitson's academy, Norwich.

Miss Ann Tomlinson, aged 14, of Newark, attested by J. Else.
Master John Turner, aged 15, pupil of Mr. J. Allen, Oxford.

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Mits Mary Tevorill, aged 13, pupil of Mils Robins, of Worcester. Master John Pearson Wood, aged 12 years and fix months, popil of Mr. Barnes, of the Grammar School, Ramard Castle.

About forty others are, from various causes, not noticed.

CLASS II.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECOND

TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master C. W. THOMP-SON, of the seminary, at Thorp Arch, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Peers, rector.

To receive a Cabinet Library, value One Guinea and a Half.

The second to Master W. CLARKE, of the same seminary, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Peers.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The third to Master ROBERT BRIGGS, of Hull Academy, under 13. Attested by Mr. Ashton, the head master, and several of the under masters.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Select Lives of Plutarch.

The fourth to Master J. W. FOWLER, of the same seminary, not 13. Attested by Mr. Ashton, &c. as the above.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The fifth to Master M. C. DUNBAR, of Islington, aged 12. Attested by his mother.

To receive Dr. Mauor's British Nepos.

The fixth to Master G. R. HOBART, of the seminary Thorpd. Arch, aged to years and nine months. Attested by Mr. Pecrs, the rector.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

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The seventh to Master M. ROBINSON, of Hull, aged 12 years. Attested by the Rev. J. Forster, his tutor.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Select Lives from Plutarch.

The eighth to Master J. B. WATSON, of Tamworth Academy, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Hilditch, the master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The following are deserving of PARTICULAR COMMEN-DATION.

Mafter John Clarke, of Doncaster Academy.

Mafter Josiah Conder, aged 10, of Messis. Palmer's school, Hack-nev.

Mafter Joseph Hopkins, of Kidderminster.

Master T. Q. Richardjin, of Messis. Haywood and Bolton's school, Shessield, aged 12.

Mafter W. Scott, of Clay-hill, not 13.

CLASS III.

ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES FOR THE GEOGRAPHICAL EXERCISE.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master CHAMBERS HALL, aged 14 years and three months, of Englefield-house. Attested by Mr. Wicks.

To receive a pair of Adams's twelve-inch Globes, value Three Guineas and a Half.

The second prize has been adjudged to Master HENRY SMITH, under 15 years of age, of Gainsborough Grammar School. Attested by Mr. Cox, the master.

To receive Dr. Watkins's Biographical and Historical

Distionary.

The third prize has been adjudged to Miss MATILDA LOWRY, under 12 years of age. Attested by the Rev. Dr. Gruber, Chaplain to the Imperial Embassy, and by Mr. Taylor, Secretary to the Society of Arts.

To receive Brookes's Gazetteer.

The fourth prize has been adjudged to Master RICHARD WOODS, aged 12 years, of Mr. Kitson's academy, Norwich. Attested by Mr. Kitson, the master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The fifth prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN WOOD, ROFFE, between 14 and 15 years of age, of the English Free School Louth, Lincolnshire. Attested by Mr. Espen, the master.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

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The fixth prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN KITSON, under 12 years of age, of Mr. Kitson's academy, Norwich. Attested by Mr. Kitson, the master.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

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The three next prizes have been adjudged to Master JOHN SMITH, under 14 years of age, of Gaintborough School. Attested by Mr. Cox, the master.

To Master THOMAS ADLARD, of the English Free School, Louth, Lincolnshire. Attested by Mr. Espin, the master.

To Master JOSEPH SMITH, aged 14 years, of the academy, East Dereham, Norfolk. Attested by Mr. Buck, the master.

Each to receive a valuable five Shilling book.

EXTRA PRIZES for extraordinary merit have been also adjudged to Matter F. BETTS, aged 13, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

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effething Ale Works at the

To Mafter GEORGE COWPER, aged 13 years and two months, of the academy at East Dereham, Norfolk. Attested by Mr. Buck.

To Master JOHN SEWELL, aged 14 years and a half, of Yarmouth. Atsested by Mr. Sewell and Mr. Brewin.

Each to receive a valuable five shilling book.

A confiderable degree of merit is due to the following candidates, whose laudable exertions shewn in the elegance of their productions resect great honour on themselves and on their instructors.

Master Robert Tomlinson, aged 12 years and nine months, pupil of Mr. Kitson, of Norwich.

M.fs Efiber Sewell, aged 14 years and fix months, pupil of ditto.

Miss Susannab Blake, aged 15 years, pupil of ditto. Master J. Perntice, aged 12 years and six months, pupil of ditto.

Master Thomas Hall, aged 11 years and nine months, of Englefield House.

Master Samuel Wright, aged 14 years and fix months, of ditto.
Master J. Clarke, under 15, of Mess. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Miss Lewis, aged 14, of North Baddelley, Hants. Master William Bingley, aged 14 years and fix months.

Matter J. Merridew, aged 11 years and two months, at Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Miss C. S. Peyton, and M. J. Peyton, of Kentish-town.

We have also derived very great pleasure from the efforts of

Mafter G. Clarke, aged 13 years and two months, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Mafter T. Boldy, aged 13, of ditto.

Mafter S. Horfey, aged 13, or ditto.

Mafter G. Stone, aged 13, of ditto.

Mafter

Mafter T. Betts, aged 11, of ditto.

Miss Henrietta Eyre, aged 12 years and fix months, of Reading.
Master Jabez Allies, of Angel-row Academy, Worcester.

Master S. C. Ibberson.

Later grant and grant state they are

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Matter Ferdinand Spiller, of Cork, in Ireland, aged 11 years and eight months, at Angel-row Academy, Worcester.

Matter Joseph English, aged 13 years and fix months, of Mr. Drum. mond's classical and mathematical school, Norwich.

We expect much in future from Masters J. Shingleton, Josiah Smith, Robert Shields; Misses Isabella Ormston, Martha Atterfell; Master John Beddome, and Master Benjamin Wykes.

It is with fincere regret that we refrain from mentioning with distinguished applause two very elegant productions, both of which have the same blemish in their title. The maps are called the maps of the East Indies, though there is not a longle part of the East Indies apparent on the paper. The intention of this exercise is not only to give the power of elegant and accurate execution, but to instruct young people in the truths of geography. From the number of the maps sent to us, we are encouraged to expect even greater things in future; and we now recommend to our young friends to exercise themselves in orthographical projection, as we shall hereafter afford them the means of shewing farther specimens of that ingenuity, which must be pleasing to every parent and instructor.

This very interesting collection of maps will be placed for public inspection at Mr. HURST'S, Bookseller, Paternoster-row, during the next three months.

NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. XII.

Answers to be received, post paid, and fully authenticated, on or before the Fifth of January.

CLASS I.

EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT ...

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What are the uses and advantages to be derived from the study of Natural History?

The best essay to be entitled to a pair of twelve inch globes, or to books, value three guineas; the second best to a silver medal value half-a-guinea; and the eight next best to books, value five shillings each.

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TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COM-PLETED THEIR THIRTEENTH YEAR.

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A Franslation of the following:

C. PLINIUS TACITO Suo. S.

Petis ut tibi avunculi mei exitum scribam, quo verius tradere posteris possis: gratias ago. Nam video, morti ejus, si celebretur, a te, immortalem gloriam esse propositam. Quamvis enim pulcherrimarum clade terrarum, ut populi, ut urbes memorabili cafu, quas semper victurus occiderit: quamvis ipse plurima opera & mansura condiderit, multum tamen perpetuitati ejus scriptorum tuorum æternitas addet. Equidem beatos puto, quibus deorum munere datum est aut facere scribenda, aut scribere legenda : beatissimos vero quibus utrumque. Horum in numero avunculus meus & suis libris & tuis erit. Quo libentius suscipio, deposco etiam quod injungis. Erat Mifeni, classemque imperio præsens regebat. Nono calend. Septembris, hora diei fere septima, mater mea indicat ei, apparere nubem inufitata & magnitudine & specie. Usus ille sole mox frigidam gustaverat jacens, studebatque: poscit soleas, ascendit locum ex quo maxime miraculum illud conspici poterat : nubes (incertum procul intuentibus ex quo monte: Vesuvium suisse postes cognitum eft) oriebatur, cujus fimilitudinem & formam non alia magis arbor quam pinus expresserit. Nam longissimo velut trunco elata in altum. quibufdam ramis diffundehatur. Credo quia recenti spiritu erecta deinde senescente eo destituta, aut etiam pondere suo victa, in latitudinem vanescehat: candida interdum, interdum sordida & maculofa, prout terram cineremve fustulerat. Magnum propinsque noscendum id eruditissimo viro visum. Inbet Liburnicam aptaria mihi, si venire una vellem, facit copiam. Respondi, studere me malle, & forte ipse quodscriberem dederat. Egrediebatur domoaccipit codicillos. Retinæ Classiarii imminenti periculo exterriti (nam villa ea subjacebat, nec una nis navibus fuga) ut le tanto discrimini eriperet, orabant. Non vertit ille confilium, sed quod studioso animo inchoaverat, obit maximo. Deducit quadriremes, ascendit ipse non Retinæ modo, sed multis (erat enim frequens amcenitas oræ) laturus auxilium. Properat illuc unde alii fugiunt; rectumque curfum, recta gubernacula in periculum tenet, adeo folutus metu, ut onines illius mali motus, omnes figuras, ut deprehenderat oculis, dictaret enotaretque. Jam navibus cinis inciderat, quo proprius accederet, calidior & densior; jam pumices etiam, ni, uncesiucean,

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grique & ambusti & fracti igne lapides : jam vadum subitum, ruinaque montis littora obstantia, cunctatuique paulum an retro slecteret, mox gubernatori ut ita faceret monenti, Fortes, inquit, fortuna juvat: Pomponianum pete. Stabiis erat, diremptus finu medio. Nam sensim circumactis curvatisque littoribus mare infunditur. Ibi, quanquam nondum periculo appropinquante, conspicuo tamen, &, quum cresceret, proximo, sarcinas contulerat in naves, certus suga, fi contrarius ventus resedisset: quo tunc avunculus meus secundissimo invectus, complectitur trepidantem, consolatur, hortatur: utque timorem ejus sua securitate leniret, deferri se in balineum jubet; lotus accubat, coenat, atque hilaris, aut, quod est æque magnum, fimilis hilari. Interim e Vesuvio monte pluribus locis latissima flammæ altaque incendia relucebant, quorum fulgor & claritas tenebris noctis excitabatur. Ille agrettium trepidatione igni relictas desertasque villas per solitudinem ardere, in remedium formidinis, dictabat : tum se quieti dedit, & quievit veriffimo quidem somno. Nam meatus animæ, qui illi propter amplitudinem corpor's gravior & fonantior erat, ab iis qui limini obverfabantur, audiebatur. Sed area ex qua dizete adibatur, ita jam cinere, mixtisque pumicibus oppleta furrexerat, ut fi longior in cubiculo mora effet, exitus negaretur. Excitatus procedit, seque Pomponiano, ceterisque qui pervigilarant reddit. In commune consultant an intra tecta sublistant, an in aperto vagentur. Nam crebris vallisque tremoribus tecta nutabant, & quafi emota fedibus suis, nune huc, nune illuc abire aut refeiri videbantur. Sub dio rurfus, quamquam levium exelorumque pumicum casus metuebatur: quod tamen periculorum collatio elegit, & apud illum quidem ratio rationem, apud alios timorem timor vicit. Cervicalia capitibus impofita linteis confiringunt. Id munimentum adversus decidentia fuit. Jam dies alibi, illic nox omnibus noctibus nigrior denhorque : quam tamen faces multæ variaque lumina folvebant. Plaenit egredi in littus, & e proximo aspicere ecquid jam mare admitteret, quod adhuc vastum & adversum permanebat. Ibi fuper abjectum linteum recubans, femel arque iterum frigidam proposcit, hausitque: deindæ, flammæ flammarum que prænuntius odor sulfuris, alios in fugam vertunt, excitant illum. Innixius servis duobus assurrexit, & statim concidit, ut ego conjecto, craffiore caligine spiritu obstructo, clausoque stomacho, qui illi natura invalidus & angustus & frequenter interzestuans erat. Ubi dies redditur (is ab eo, quem novissime viderat, tertius) corpus inventum est integrum, illæsum opertumque, ut fuerat indutus: habitus corporis quiescenti quam defuncto similior. Interim Mifeni ego & mater. Sed nihil ad historiam, nec tu aliud quam de exitu ejus scire voluith. Finem ego faciam: pnum adjiciam, omnia me, quibus interfueram, ui-

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interfueram, quœque statim quum maxime vera memorantur, audiveram, vere persequutum: tu potissima execupes. Aliud est enim epistolam, aliud historiam; aliud amico, aliud omnibus scribere. Vale.

The best translation to be entitled to a Cabinet Library, value two guineas; the seven next best to books, value five shiftings each.

MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

FOR YOUNG GENTLEMEN NOT EXCEEDING SIXTEEN YEARS.

A ship is supposed to have taken its departure, on the twenty-second of November from Falmouth for Madeira, with a north-easterly wind, and during the voyage the ship sailed at a rate which varied as the cosine of the number of degrees from the east point to the point in which the wind was during each tack. The ship was never more than one day, nor less than tix hours upon any tack, and the wind blew from each point of the compass in the course of the voyage, or the ship was becalmed. It is required to make a regular log-book and journal of this voyage, taking the sun's meridional altitude every day, and tracking the course on a chart, in which a degree of latitude is exactly one half of an inch, and the greatest rate at which the ship went was exactly ten miles an hour.

The best folution to be entitled to a Hadley's quadrant, value three guineas; and the fix next best to books, value five shillings each.

An unufual number of prizes, which have not been fent for lie at our Publisher's.

We have prepared another filver pen for Master Carsham, in lieu of the one which was lost in the conveyance from London to Notingham.

The last collection of Maps, together with the late specimens of Penmanship, may all of them be seen at the Publisher's.

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Page 154. vol. II. for Songe die, read Song-odge, there

Page 126 vol. H. for Maria Dell, and Maria Surr

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

WE have received several very instructive and entertaining communications for the PRECEPTOR, which, though hitherto deferred for want of room, will, we trust, very soon appear. We hope this delay will not discourage our ingenious correspondents. The task in which we are engaged is certainly of importance to the rising generation, and demands the co-operation and assistance of every liberal mind. From the heads of several respectable seminaries we have also received testimonies of approbation, among subich the following deserves our particular attention:

"It is owing to your kind encouragement and approbation of my scholars, I embrace this opportunity of testifying the high sense I entertain of your condescending politeness. Whilst by your Preceptor you are enlarging the bounds of science, by the numerous and important subjects of which it treats, I must say the work has, within the last four months, contributed more towards the improvement of my scholars in general, by your very liberal rewards to them, than three times the value given by myself. I shall, after Christmas, use the Preceptor in my school as a class-book; in the mean time depend upon the exertions of

Your obedient fervant,

York Academy.

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W. WILLIAMS.

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On this letter we think it proper to remark, that Mr. Williams considers the Preceptor in the light in which we particularly with it to be considered, as a medium for the diffusion of reservity with a view to the prizes; the adoption of it as a clais-book is perfectly in conformity with this sentiment; and, we trust, we may venture to say without presumption, that it will in this way tend more to the improvement of pouts than any other course of reading that can be adopted, and we hope the example will be generally followed. For this purpose the work will, perhaps, by some be found desirable in volumes, as the different subjects may then be pursued without interruption, To those who wish to adopt this practice, we give this information, that the first volume, may be had complete at our publishers, at the usual price.

ERKATA.

Page 165. vol. II. for Song-adkei, read Song-adpei.
Page 126. vol. II. for Maria Bell, read Maria Bart

JUVENILE LIBRARY.

LECTURES,

YOUNG PERSONS.

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ON

Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE XI.

OF THE ELECTRICAL PHENOMENA.

OME of you will, I doubt not, be disposed to remind me, that I have neglected to explain why the electrical machine exhibited different effects when the chain, which communicates with the earth, was put over the prime conductor, from those which take place in its ordinary mode of operation, when the chain was connected with the cushion.

You were not prepared for the subject, or I should have explained to you that, in a very early stage of the science, two kinds of electricity were observed, or, according to Dr. Franklin's theory, two different effects from the same cause. A ball of rolin or fealing-wax, and a globe of glass, when excited, will each of them electrify; but the electricity produced from each will differ in some of its effects. Thus, if we electrify two cork balls, suspended by filken threads, with the same substance, either glass or sealing-wax, they will mutually repel each other; but if one of them is electrified with glafs, and the other with fealing-wax, they will be mutually attracted. From this circumstance it was conjectured, at first, that there were two kinds of electrity. and that from glass was called the vitreous, and that from refinous substances or sulphur was termed the refinous electricisy. Another circumstance which served to diftinguish them, was the different appearance of the electric light. A divergent cone of light, resembling a painter's brush, difsinguished the vitreous electricity, while a single globe or VOL IL Bb ball

ball of clear light was the mark of the refinous. In process of time, however, it was discovered that these different phenomena depended rather on the surface than the composition of the electric; for glass, when the smooth surface was destroyed by being ground with emery, and being rubbed with a smooth body, exhibited all the appearances of the resmous electricity, yet afterwards, when it was greased and rubbed upon a rough surface, it resumed its former property. It was therefore concluded, upon various experiments, that the smoother of two bodies, upon friction, exhibits the phenomena of the vitreous electricity; and the contrary.

Dr. Franklin, whose theory is now generally adopted, rejected the idea of two kinds of electricity. He supposes that the electric matter is every where the same, and that all bodies contain a certain portion of this matter. Glass, and those substances however which are denominated electrics, he supposes contain a large portion of the matter, but are not to be penetrated by it; and those substances, on the contrary, which are called non-electrics or conductors, he regards as permeable, or capable of being penetrated by it.

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When any body contains a fuperfluous quantity of the electric fluid, it is then (according to the Franklinean theory) electrified positive or plus; when it contains less than its proper share it is said to be negative or electrified minus, that is, some of its electricity is taken from it. That electricity, therefore, which was before called the vitreous, Dr. Franklin calls positive electricity; and that which was termed the refinous, he confiders as negative electricity. If, therefore, a rough and smooth body are rubbed together, the smooth body in general will have the positive electricity, and the rough the negative. Thus, in the ordinary operation of the electrical machine, the cylinder is positively electrified or plus, and the rubber negative or minus; and the redundancy of the positive electricity is sent from the cylinder to the prime conductor. This, however, is fupposing the chain, which communicates with the earth, to be at the fame time in contact with the rubber; for as the earth is the great repository of electrical matter, if the chain is removed, and put over the prime conductor, these effects will be reverfed, and the prime conductor will then be negatively

gatively electrified or minus, and the rubber will be plus we positive.

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That the electrical matter is possessed of force, even while it proceds in a stream imperceptible to our senses, is evident from an easy experiment. To the under part of the Leyden phial an apparatus is often adapted as in fig. 2. It consists of the wire bc, and a brass fly at the top. While the bottle is charging the fly will turn round, and when it is charged it will stop. If the top of the bottle is touched with the finger, or any conducting furface, the fly will turn again till the bottle is discharged. The fly will electrify cork balls positively while the bottle is charging, and negating while it is discharging. A similar effect is observable in what is called the electrical bells. In this apparatus three finall bells are fuspended from a narrow plate of metal, the two outermost by chains, and that in the middle (from which a chain passes to the stoor) by a tilken thread. Two finall knobs of metal are also hung by filken threads on each fide of the belt in the middle, which ferve for clappers. When this apparatus is connected with an electrified conductor, the outermost bells, suspended by chains, will be charged, will attract the clappers, and be fruck by them; and the clappers then becoming, in their turn, electrified, will be repelled by these bells, and attracted by that which is in the middle, and their electricity will be then attracted away by the chain which passes to the floor. After this the clappers will be again attracted by the outermost bells, and thus the ringing will be continued, as long as the conductor is charged. An apparatus of this kind is usually attached to the conducting rods, which are fixed to the gable ends of houses to protect them from lightning, and thus serve to give notice of a thunder form.

The instrument called an electrometer (fig. 4.), which is commonly used for measuring the quantity of electricity contained in any body, is constructed on a similar principle. It consists of a perpendicular stem, which terminates in a round top like a ball. It may be fixed in one of the holes of the conductor, or at the top of a Leyden phial. To the upper part of the stem a graduated semicircle is fixed, as well as the index, which consists of a very slender piece of

B b 2.

wood.

wood, which reaches to the center of the graduated arch, and, at its extremity, there is a small pith ball. When the body is electrified, the index recedes more or less from the pillar, and the degree is ascertained by the gradations on the arch.

Electricity accelerates the evaporation of liquors, and the perspiration of animals. There is reason also to apprehend that it is not without effect upon the vegetable creation, as from some experiments we are led to conclude, that plants which have been electrified vegetate earlier and more vigorously than those which have not been subjected to its influence.

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Electricity is, indeed, a most powerful agent in nature, and we are probably not yet acquainted with all its effects. It is, however, in the atmospherical phenomena that these effects are most apparent and most tremendous. It is to Dr. Franklin that we are indebted for the amazing discovery, that the cause which produces THUNDER and LIGHTNING is precisely the same with that which produces the ordinary

phenomena of electricity.

This truly eminent philosopher was led to the discovery by comparing the effects of lightning and those produced by an electrifying machine, and by reflecting that if two gun-barrels when electrified will strike at two inches with a lond report, what must be the effect of ten thousand acres of electrified cloud. After much thought upon the subject, he determined to try whether it was not possible to bring the lightning down from the heavens. A thought at once daring and fublime! With this view he constructed a kite, like those which are used by school boys, but of a larger fize and ftronger materials. A pointed wire was fixed upon the kite, in order to attract the electrical matter. The first favourable opportunity he was impatient to try his experiment, and he fent his kite up into a thunder cloud. experiment succeeded beyond his hope. The wire in the kite attracted the electricity from the cloud; it descended along the hempen firing, and was received by an iron key attached to the extremity of the hempen ftring, that part which he held in his hand being of filk, in order that the electric fluid might stop when it reached the key. key

key he charged phials, with which phials thus charged he kindled spirits, and performed all the common electrical experiments.

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Thus it is evident that the cause of those terrible convulfions of nature, which, in warm climates especially, are attended with fuch tremendous effects, is no other than a fuperfluous mass of electrical matter, collected in those immense watry conductors, the clouds; and that this matter is discharged when an electrical cloud meets with another which is less powerfully charged, or when it is brought sufficiently near the earth to be within the sphere of the electrical attraction. This fact may be proved at almost any time, but particularly in a fultry fummer's evening, by repeating Dr. Franklin's experiment with the kite. Some caution, however, must be used in making the experiment; and it will fucceed better if a small wire is twisted in with the hempen firing by which the kite is held; indeed the ingenious Mr. Walker, in his Lectures lately published, recommends to fly the kite with wire instead of a string, which, he observes, may be coiled upon a strong rod or bar of folid glass, held in both hands. Sparks may, in this manner, be taken from the wire or ftring, as from a common electrical machine. For fecurity, however, a key must be suspended by a wire, from that which is coiled up, fo as to touch an half-crown, or a plate of metal lying on the ground. If the key is then lifted a little from the plate, a stream of fire will be seen proceeding from the key to the plate; but if a fensation, like a cobweb on the face, takes place, it will be prudent to throw down the glass bar, and leave the kite to itself. Electricity may be again attracted from the a mosphere, if a long wire screwed into the knob of a Leyden bottle, and pointed at the extremity, is held aloft in the air; and if this experiment is made in the nighttime, when thunder and lightning are near, a ftar will appear at the point of the wire, and if the bottle is touched with the other hand a shock will be received. A man also standing upon a glass stool, and holding in his hand a fishing rod coated with tin-foil, or any long metal instrument, aloft in the air, will generally be more or less charged with electricity, in proportion to the state of the atmosphere, and B b 3 **iparks**

fparks may be drawn from his body, as if he had been electrified in the ufual manner.

Thunder storms in this country are seldom attended with fatal effects, yet it is defirable to be made aware of their approach. They are generally observed to happen when there is little or no wind, and are preceded by one denfe cloud or more, increasing very rapidly in fize, and rising into the higher regions of the air. The lower furface is black and nearly level, the upper parts are arched and well defined; fometimes many of them appear piled one upon another, all arched in the same manner. At the time this cloud rifes, the air is generally full of small separate clouds, motionless, and of whimfical shapes. These gradually are drawn towards the thunder cloud, and when they come near it their limbs mutually firetch towards each other, and then coalefce. Sometimes, however, the thunder cloud fwells and enlarges without the addition of these clouds, from its attracting the vapours of the atmosphere, wherever it passes. When the thunder cloud is grown to a great fize, the lower furface becomes rugged, parts being detached towards the earth, but still connected with the rest. About this time also it feems to fink lower, and a number of small clouds are driven about under it, in very uncertain directions. It is while these clouds are most agitated that the rain or hail falls in the greatest abundance.

While the thunder cloud is fwelling, and extending its branches over a large tract of country, the lightning is feen to dart from one part of it to another, and often to illuminate its whole mass. When the cloud has acquired sufficient extent, the lightning strikes between it and the earth in two opposite places. As the lightning continues, the cloud grows thinner, till at length it breaks in different

places, and displays a clear sky.

The clouds, however, are sometimes negatively electrified with respect to the earth, and in this case the lightning is supposed to proceed from the earth to the cloud; but the mischievous effects are the same, and, in fact, there is reason to think that this is a rare case.

During a thunder storm the fasest place is in the cellar,

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for when a person is below the furface of the earth, the lightning must strike it before it can reach him, and its force will therefore probably be expended on it. When it is not possible to retreat to the cellar, the best situation is in the middle of a room, not under a metal chandelier, or any other conducting furface; and it is adviseable to fit on one chair, and to lay the feet up upon another, or it would be still better to lay two or three beds or mattraffes, one upon another, in the middle of the room, and place the chairs' upon them, the matters (viz. hair and feathers) with which they are stuffed being non-conductors. Persons in fields should prefer the open parts to any shelter under the trees, &c. The distance of a thunder cloud, and consequently the degree of danger is not, however, difficult to be estimated. As light travels at the rate of seventy-two thousand four hundred and twenty leagues in a fecond of time, its effects. may be confidered as inftantaneous within any moderate distance; but found, on the contrary, is transmitted only atthe rate of three hundred and eighty yards in a second. By accurately observing the time, therefore, which intervenesbetween the flash, and the noise of thunder which succeeds it, a very near calculation may be made of its distance.

The discovery of Dr. Franklin, which ascertained the identity of lightning and the electric fluid; suggested to the fame philosopher the means of preserving buildings from lightning, by means of metallic conductors attached to the outfide of high buildings. As thefe are now fo common, it is unnecessary to describe them. The principle on which they are constructed is the well known fact of metallic bodies being better conductors of the electrical fluid than any others. The conducting rod is pointed at the top, in order the more gradually to attract the electricity from the clouds and the atmosphere, and the upper part should be made of copper, to prevent its rusting, and the remainder should be painted. The conducting rod should be not too slender, and should extend in the earth beyond the building, to convey the electric matter clearly away; and if it terminates in a pool of water, which is one of the best conductors, it will be still fafer.

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After this great discovery electricians began to apply the theories of electricity to a great variety of other phenomena. Thus it has been attempted to account upon these principles for the rising of vapours in the atmosphere, and the fall of rain. Previous to rain it is supposed, that a quantity of electric matter escapes from the earth, and in its ascent to the higher regions of the air, collects and conducts into its path a great quantity of vapours. The same cause that collects will gradually condense them, till they come almost into contact, so as to form small drops too heavy to be supported by the air, and then uniting with others as they fall, come down in rain.

Hail is supposed, upon the same principles, to be formed in the higher regions of the atmosphere, where the cold is intense, and where the electric matter is very copious. In these circumstances a great number of watry particles are brought near together, where they are frozen, and in their descent they collect other particles, so that the density of the hail-stone is less at the surface than near the center; and agreeably to this theory it is found, that on the tops of high mountains both the hail-stones and drops of rain are very small, owing to the little space through which they fall. Clouds of snow differ from the clouds which produce rain only in the circumstance of their being frozen in the upper regions. The regularity in which the slakes are disposed is used as an argument to shew that they are acted upon by some uniform cause like electricity.

It is no small confirmation of this theory, that vapours seldom rife to a great height without producing luminous meteors. Almost all volcanic eruptions are also accompanied by lightning. The column of vapour which rites from the volcano is continually traversed by lightning in different directions. Waterspouts are known also frequently to emit stashes of lightning, and to be accompanied with thunder, from which circumstance some have accounted for them too upon electrical principles.

The aurora berealis (or northern lights) is generally regarded as an electrical phenomenon; and is supposed to be produced by the electrical fluid being condensed in passing

the columns of elevated vapour.

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. Natural History .



1.Crowned Eagle.

2.F.agle.

3. Black Backed Eagle.

on ne an po From all this it may be inferred, that if electricity is not the immediate cause, it is always strongly connected with the phenomena of the atmosphere; and these facts also seem further to indicate that if the electrical fire is not identically the same as common elementary fire, it is at least a combination of that fluid with some other unknown substance.

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE EAGLE KIND CONTINUED .- THE BALD BUZZARD.

THE length of this bird is nearly two feet; its breadth about five feet four inches; it is brown above, and white below; the back of the head is white; the lateral tail feathers, on the inner fide are fireaked with white; the legs are bare. This bird lives upon fish, and builds its nest among reeds on the shore. It takes its prey, not by swimming, but by darting upon it.

Linnæus has borrowed the name baliætus, which he has given to this eagle, from the Greek. It is applied from the supposed predilection of this bird for the sea. This preference of a maritime situation is not strictly a fact. The bald buzzard is found in the most inland parts of the country, provided these are supplied with rivers; and it might have, with equal propriety, been called a water eagle.

THE JEAN LE BLANC

Is not found in Britain, but is very common in France, where the peafants give it this name from the whiteness of its belly and under part of its wings; above it is of a brownish grey, below white spotted with brown; the tail feathers, on the outside and at the extremity, are brown; on the inside white streaked with brown. It commonly nessless on the ground among thickets; frequents cottages and farm houses, where it plunders the hens and other poultry; it has a slow and heavy slight, and catches its prey rather upon the ground than in the air.

The jean le blanc, though classed by naturalists among

the eagles, feems to have considerable affinity to kites and owls, both in its habits and external form. Like the latter genus, it chaces its prey most frequently in the morning and evening, and rests during the middle of the day; although there is no evidence of its incapacity of bearing the strongest light. Like the kite and other predatory birds of the ignoble kind, its wings are short in proportion to the volume of its body; this is particularly observed in the semale, whose size is a third larger than that of the male; hence the slow and heavy motions which characterize this voracious tribe of thieves, which in France are the scourge of the poultry yards, and are executed by every good housewise.

The jean le blanc commonly lays three eggs of pearl grey; and, during her incubation, the female is abundantly supplied by her mate, who prolongs his attentions till the duty of rearing the family is fully discharged. It is then that the wants of the young give edge to the predatory habits of the parents. Hens, young turkeys, ducks, are then attacked with double fury; and, where poultry fails, rabbits, partridges, quails, lizards, and frogs, become the indiscriminate victims of these rapacious invaders.

in ti Louis The Eagle of BRASIL.

Colour blackish brown; mixed ash-colour in the wings;

the tail feathers white; the legs naked.

This bird is about half the fize of the Oroonoko eagle; it has no creft of erect feathers upon the head, and by the native Brafilians it is diffinguished by the name of uzubitinga.

THE OROONORO. EAGLE.

Has a tuft consisting of four feathers upon its head; above it is blackish brown, below white spotted with black; the upper part of the neck yellow; tail feathers brown; the legs are covered to the feet with white and black feathers.

These birds, though the natural inhabitants of that district of America, which borders on the Oroonoko, pals frequently over to the Antilles. They were there seen by Du

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Tertre, who gives the following account of them. There passes frequently into these islands a fort of large bird, which may challenge the first rank among the predatory tribes of the New World. The first inhabitants of Tobago called it the Oronooko eagle, from its large size, and the resemblance of its form to the figure of that noble bird. In that island it is only a bird of passage; its common residence being in those vast tracts that are watered by the Oronooko. It derives its subsistence by preying upon other birds, upon which it darts with fury, and having dashed them to the ground, it tears them to pieces and devours them. It attacks the arras and parroquets, and, what is remarkable, never deigns to surprise its prey while on the ground, or perched upon a tree, but watches till it has taken its slight, and boldly assaits it in the regions of the air.

THE EAGLE OF PONDICHERRY.

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This is the most beautiful of all the rapacious birds. It is of a chesnut colour, and less by an half than the smallest of the eagles; a circumstance which ought perhaps to exclude it from their genus. It is the most remarkable bird of prey in the east. The Malabares have made it the object of religious homage; but it seems that the beauty of its plumage, rather than its size or strength, has gained it divine honours. It is about the size of a salcon, and is found in the kingdom of Visapour, and in the territories of the great Mogul.

OF THE FALCON.

This species of birds, from its connection with our amusements, is of still greater importance than the vulture or the cagle. The falcon, though diminutive in size, is not inserior to the eagle, either in courage or generosity, and its subserviency to our pleasure, has made it an object of still greater curiosity.

Falconry, although now in a great measure disused, was the principal amusement of our ancestors. A person of rank scarcely stirred out without a hawk on his arm, which, in ald paintings, is the criterion of nobility.

Of those falcons antiently trained for the chace, we know only

only the names: the exact species are so imperfectly deseribed, that one may easily be taken for another. The gyrfalcon, the falcon, the lanner, the sacre, the hobby, the kestril, and the merlin, are those most commonly in use, both in this country and abroad; and these kinds were formerly mostly natives of Britain. These are called the longwinged hawks, to distinguish them from the more ignoble tribes of goshawks, sparrow hawks, kites, and buzzards, which are too slow, obstinate, or cowardly to be serviceable in the exercises of the field.

These birds are more docile, spirited, and bold than the rest; they do not come upon their prey in a horizontal direction like the goshawk, but dart perpendicularly from the clouds, like a ball of lead, upon the devoted victim of their hunger. If pheasants are to be found in his neighbourhood, the salcon prefers them to every other kind of prey. His descent from the clouds upon them is so sudden and unexpected, that he seldom misses his aim. He frequently too attacks the kite, either to exercise his courage, or to deprive him of his prey; but he rather insults than injures him. He chaces him like a coward; and, though he seldom puts him to death, he beats him about with disdain, apparently despising his sless, as much as he does his dastardly manners.

It was not, however, to the generous race of falcons alone that the labours of the falconer were confined : feveral of the more fluggish and ignoble birds were tamed by those of inferior rank, who could obtain no better. The former were the necessary appendages of all persons of high station, and, from their swiftness and docility, were always confidered as most proper for the field. When completely trained, their docility was fo remarkable, that they obeyed not only the commands but the figns of their mafter. They remained quietly perched upon his hand till their game was flushed, or else kept hovering round his head, without ever leaving him till he gave them permission. In their wild state their courege is such, that, like conquerors in a country they have subdued, they keep all birds in awe and subjection to their prowefs. Such as feem to diffegard the kite or the sparrow hawk, are seen to fly screaming with

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terror at their approach, and, like peafants before a victorious army, every one of them hastening to shelter himself. Captivity probably does not exalt their spirit. They are trained, however, in that state to attack birds, which they do not attempt when wild. The young falcon, from his rashness in attacking geese and barnacles, exposes himself at times to a fevere chaftisement, till he learns from experience to correct his temerity in meddling with fuch unwieldy game.

THE GERFALCON:

This bird is nearly of the fize of the ofprey, and flands foremost in this undaunted tribe. When falconry was practifed, he was used for the larger kinds of game, cranes, and herons. His bill is yellow, and very much hooked; the throat is white; and the whole plumage of the fame colour, but marked with dusky lines, spots, or bars.

The gerfalcon not only surpasses the rest of the tribe in fize, but he also poffesses all those distinctive marks which have been observed by the connoisseurs to discriminate the nobler kinds, which are capable of education, from the baser and more intractable tribes. The generous birds; trained for the purposes of falconry, are distinguished by the length of their wings, which reach commonly to the tip of the tail; the first feather, too, of each wing is nearly of equal length with the fecond, and instead of being rounded at the end, as in the base kinds, terminates like a lance in a long sharp point. The kites, goshawks, and buzzards, have short rounded wings, which render them as unfit for the rapid evolutions of the chace, as their base and intractable dispositions make them incapable of receiving the education necessary for that exercise.

Their courage renders them a match for the largest birds: against the stork, the heron, and the crane, they are easily victorious. They kill hares by darting from the air upon them; the female is most frequently employed in those daringenterprises, being a third larger in fize, and much ftronger than the male, who is employed by the falconer against herons and crows, and, from the inferiority of his fize, is called the tiercelet.

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THE PEREGRINE FALCON

Is of the same species with the common salcon, of which there are many varieties, very properly reduced by M. Busson to two, the salcon gentle and the peregrine; both are much less than the ger, and are about the size of a raven. The salcon gentle moults in March, the peregrine not till the middle of August.

THE LANNER

Is very little known in Europe. It breeds in Iceland, and was faid to be very frequent in France. Mr. Pennant has given a description of one that was caught, while pursuing wild ducks under the nets. It is known, says Belon, by the blueness of its legs and feet, and by its spots, which are along, and not across the feathers, as in the other hawks.

THE SACRE

Is a race nearly allied to the lanner, and, like it, extremely rare. Belon is, perhaps, the only naturalist who has seen and described them both. The legs and seet of this bird, like those of the lanner, are blue; the plumage of a dirty brown, inserior in beauty to the other birds in the records of falconry. It is nearly of the size of the common salcon, but of a rounder shape; equal in courage and strength to the peregrine; it is held a bird of passage. Few can boast, says Belon, of having seen its nest.

THE GOSHAWK

Is larger than the common buzzard, but of a longer and more elegant form. Both it and the sparrow hawk have their wings, when closed, shorter than the top of the tail. The beak of this bird is of a dirty blue, and the cere at its base yellowish green. M. Bussion kept two of these birds for a considerable time in the same aviary; but though a male and semale, he never found they shewed the smallest affection for each other: on the contrary, after they had remained five months together, the semale killed the male in a transport of rage during night. When left at liberty among other hawks they infallibly destroy them one after another.

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THE KITE

Is easily distinguished from the other sluggish and rapacious kinds, by his forked tail and his slow floating motions. He is never at rest; to him slying seems both natural and easy; and he may be said to spend his life in the air. The manner in which he plies his wings has often been admired. They are at times altogether without motion; and it is by his tail alone that he directs his evolutions. He raises himself without effort, and descends as if he was sliding along an inclined plain. He slackens, then quickens his movement; again stops his slight, and hangs as if motionless in the bosom of the air for hours together.

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With all this apparent ease in flying he seldom chaces; for there is hardly any bird that cannot make good his retreat against him. He may therefore be considered as an infidious thief, who prowls about, and when he finds a small bird wounded, or a young chicken strayed too far from the mother, instantly seizes the hour of calamity, and, like a famished glutton, is sure to shew no mercy. The kite, in his dispositions and manners, somewhat resembles the vulture, his superior in rank and strength: his deficiency of strength, however, is fully compensated by his numbers. Kites are to be found in the vicinity almost of every cottage; and of all animals they are the most incommodious neighbours. They were formerly kept in France for the entertainment of the royal family, by their combats with the sparrow-hawk or falcon. Though possessed of arms, force, velocity, and every quality which ought to inspire him with courage, this dastardly animal flies before an enemy not above half his fize. He rifes by continual windings in the air, as if he wanted to conceal himself in the clouds, till he is overtaken by the hawk, who beats him down by repeated strokes of his wings and beak, till at last he brings him to the ground, less hurt than beaten; rather vanquished by his own fears, than the force of his enemy.

THE BUZZARD

Is still more common than the kite. It breeds in large woods, and builds commonly in an old crow's nest, which it lines anew with wool. It is more remarkable for attach-

ment to its young than the other tribes of rapacious birds, which, as we have already noticed, fometimes drive them, while yet helpless, from the nest. The buzzard affociates with her young for some time after they are introduced into the field; and the cock, it is faid, will hatch and rear the young if the hen is killed. In other respects this is a more fluggish and inactive bird than the rest of the hawks; he will remain a whole day perched on the fame bough, and feldom removes to any great diffance from his usual refidence. In his choice of food he gratifies his native indolence, and eats mice, worms, or infects, which are easier taken than birds that must be pursued. The moor buzzard, the honey buzzard, and the hen harrier, feem but varieties of this fluggish tribe.

THE HOBBY

Is much smaller than the common falcon, and is of a cowardly disposition; for unless his natural timidity is overcome by education, he will only encounter larks or quails. But these desects in ardour and intrepidity in him, are amply compensated by an indefatigable industry. No fooner does the fportfman or his dog appear than he pursues closely their tract, or swims above them in the air, and feizes upon the small birds that rise before them. Should the dog fpring a lark or a quail, and the sportsman miss his aim, the hobby inflantly dives upon the devoted bird, and feldom miffes his. He betrays no symptoms of fear at the report of a musket, and seems ignorant of the effects of firearms; hence he is often shot by the sportsman while devouring his prey.

The hobby most commonly frequents the plains in the vicinity of woods, and particularly those where larks abound. These he destroys in vast numbers; and so deeply are they impressed with the antipathy of this mortal enemy, that they never perceive him approach without being ftruck with a terror that precipitates them from the air, in order to hide themselves in the brambles or grass, the only method by which they can avoid their destroyer; for, although the lark can rife high, the hobby can mount higher than it. This power of flying high formerly rendered him an object

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to the falconer. He was docile, and capable of acquiring every branch of discipline, and was in high repute in the chace of partridges and quails.

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THE MERLIN

Refembles the falcons in every thing but fize; it has the fame plumage, the fame figure, and is diffinguished by the fame courage and docility. Though it only weighs five ounces and an half, it was formerly trained to chace quails and partridges, which it would kill by a fingle stroke on the head. It nearly refembles the hobby, the rock hawk, and the kestril; these small species run so near into each other, that naturalists can hardly distinguish the species from the varieties of the same bird.

The pursuit of the lark by a couple of merlins is reckoned the most delightful spectacle which this fort of exercise can afford. They act in concert; and while the one soars high in the air to strike his prey from above, the other watches its motions below; so that the devoted lark cannot escape their united efforts.

To these various tribes of the hawk kind found in Europe, we might add several birds in different parts of the globe, which Buffon and other naturalists commonly refer to this genus. The most remarkable of these is the red hawk of the East Indies, described by Aldrovandus. The bill is large, and but little bent, yellow at the base, and ash-coloured towards the top. The male, like those of the European kinds, is a third smaller than the semale. The back and upper parts of the body are of an ash-colour, bordering upon brown; the lower parts are of a deep orange, verging on red; in the male, the colours are all brighter and deeper than those of the same parts in the semale.

Another species in the same quarter of the world Willoughby describes as of the size of a goshawk, and distinguished by a crest rising from the top of the head and hanging down upon the neck in two divisions. The upper parts of this species are black; the under are marked with alternate bars of white and black.

A third species of these birds is found in Africa, called sanas by the negroes upon the coast of Senegal. It has been C c 3 brought

brought to Europe by Mr. Adamson, and described by the name of the filling bawk In colour and fize it does not materially differ from the European falcon, but is diffinguished from all other birds of the tribe by a long creft of pendent feathers, which rise from the crown of the head, and hang behind the neck. Both its mandibles are ferrated; and in its habits as well as its external form, it is totally different from every species known in Europe; for it is more addicted . to fishing than to the chace. The ferræ upon its bill are probably intended by nature to qualify it for fuch a manner of

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY. No. XI.

LIFE OF JANE, QUEEN OF NAVARRE.

HIS excellent queen was the daughter of Henry I the Second, king of Navarre, and of Margaret of Orleans, fifter to Francis I. king of France. She was carefully educated in the Protestant religion, to which she adhered fledfaftly all her days. She married Anthony of Bourbon, fon to Charles, duke of Vendoine, by whom the had iffue the illustrious Henry IV. king of France by his father's right, and of Navarre in right of his mother.

This Anthony, king of Navarre, in the minority of Charles IX., being the first prince of the blood, was to be his protector; but the queen mother, and the family of the Guifes; aiming to get the power and management of affairs into their own hands, endeavoured by all means to detach the king of Navarre from the Protestant interest, that, by weakening it, they might carry every thing according to their pleasure. For this purpose they employed the Spanish ambaffador and some others to persuade him to a neutral conduct. They also added, that if he would but cause the prince his fon to go once to the mass, the king of Spain would confer on him the kingdom of Sardinia instead of that of Navarre, which had been lately taken from him Overcome by these artifices the king alienated himself from

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the Protestants, and solicited his wife to embrace Popery alfo; but she, being better grounded in the truth, refused, which occasioned a breach between them. On this she retired to Podium, in the country of Berne, and there held her court. But foon after the king her husband received a wound at the fiege of Orleans, of which he died. The faction then entered into a conspiracy to seize upon the queen of Navarre and her children, and to convey them to Spain, where they would doubtless have fallen victims to the inquisition. Providence, however, frustrated the abominable project, and faved the queen and her children from the defigns of their enemies.

Not long after, in the time of the third civil war on account of religion, the good queen having raifed a confiderable force, led them to Rochelle, together with her fon Henry and her daughter Catharine. From thence the wrote letters to the king, the queen mother, and others of the royal family of France, endeavouring to persuade them to moderate terms. But her attempts were vain, and the war went on. Soon after the Protestants were defeated at the battle of Baffac, and the prince of Condé was flain. When this melancholy news arrived at Rochelle the queen hafted away to the Protestant army, where, before a great affembly of nobles and foldiers, the made an animating speech, at the conclusion of which she faid: "The good cause is not dead with the prince of Condé, neither ought worthy men to yield to despondency in such cases, God having so provided for his cause, that he gave Condé companions while he lived, who may succeed him now he is no more. I have brought with me," faid the, "my only fon Henry, who is the heir of Conde's name, fo he is also of his virtues. These, with other nobles, I trust, will never be wanting in so good a cause." After this address the returned to Rochelle to raise new fuccours."

In the mean time a commission was granted to Torride. the governor of Quercie, to iummon the queen of Navarre. and the prince her fon to quit the Protestants, and, in case of refusal, to invade the countries of Berne, Foix, and Navarre, in which he fo far fucceeded, that he reduced all for the king, except the city of Navarre, which he belieged.

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Upon this the queen fent the earl of Montgomery against him, who, with a small army of five hundred horse and four thousand foot, obliged Torride to raise the fiege, and retire to Ortheze, where the earl befiged him in his turn. The place foon furrendered, and all the other places were reduced to the obedience of the queen. Not long after peace was concluded between the king and the Protestants; but notwithstanding this the malice of the Popish party continued, and the ruin of the queen of Navarre was refolved upon. To effect this an ambaffador was fent to Rochelle in the king's name, to treat with her about a marriage between her fon Henry and the king's fifter Lady Margaret. The queen was earnestly pressed to come to court, that the affair might be fully discussed and concluded. Her majesty approved of the union, thinking it might be the means of producing peace; but she was averse to the proposed journey, and to the celebration of the marriage at Paris. At length her objections were removed, and, in March 1572, the went with her retinue to the court, which was then at Blois, where the experienced an extraordinary degree of respect from the king and his brothers, though this behaviour was mere hypocrify; and the faithless monarch had the baseness to say to his mother: " Have I not acquitted myself well? Let them alone, and I will bring them all into the net." In the following month the articles of marriage between the prince of Navarre and the king's fifter were concluded. In the beginning of May the king folicited her to come to Paris, which invitation fhe accepted. While preparations were making for the marriage, the queen-mother formed the deadly defign of taking off this excellent woman. For this purpose the consulted with one Rene, an Italian, who poffeffed the art of poisoning in the greatest perfection. This wretch fold the queen of Navarre some perfumes, which produced the defired effect, and the foon after fell into a violent fever. On finding how strong the disease was upon her, and apprehending that it would end in her death, the prepared herfelf for it with the fpirit and temper of a christian. Calling her fon Henry to her, the commanded him, above all things elfe, carefully to ferve God according to the confession of faith in which he moers. had.

had been educated, and not fuffer himself to be seduced from it by the pleasures or honours of the world. She charged him to take care that the constitutions concerning it, which the had published in the principality of Berne and the Lower Navarre, should be inviolably kept. She exhorted him to banish all evil counsellors from his confidence, as also all flatterers and other vicious persons. She recommended to his care and affectionate regard his fifter Catharine, befeeching him to bring her up in the reformed religion, and to marry her to a Protestant prince. Having dispatched all worldly concerns, this good queen fet herfelf about the more important business of preparing for the departure of her foul to an eternal world. She was attended by fome ministers of the reformed religion, to whose directions and confolations she attended with much humility and comfort. "I take all this," faid she, " as fent from the hand of God, my most merciful Father. Nor have I, during this extremity, been afraid to die, much less have I murmured against God for inflicting this chaftisement upon me, knowing that whatfoever he does is fo ordered by him. that, in the end, it shall turn to my everlasting good." She was much comforted in hearing the facred Scriptures read to her, particularly the Pfalms of David; and when prayer was offered up by the ministers, she manifested the most fervent devotion of heart, by the expression of her countenance and the earnestness of her manner. In this heavenly frame of mind did this truly illustrious woman depart from the possession of an earthly crown to one of immortal and unfading glory, June 9, 1572, aged 44.

She enjoyed all her faculties to the last, shewing a perfect memory and judgment, both in the management of her

worldly and spiritual concerns.

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The king pretended to be much afflicted at her death, and caused the whole court to go into mourning; but this was all hypocrify.

On the 24th of August following was the ever to be detested massacre of Paris, which began a general slaughter of the Protestants throughout France: the number slain on this horrid occasion exceeded one hundred thousand. The horrors of that night are not to be conceived, much less ex-

pressed.

pressed. The fatal signal being given by the tolling of a bell, the butchery commenced. Coglini, the admiral of France, was murdered in his own house. The inhuman favages ravaged the whole city of Paris, and butchered, in three days, above ten thousand persons, among whom were many of the first nobility of France, and the most illustrious for character as well as for rank. The same bloody scene was extended, by fecret orders from the court, to most of the provinces; but the murderous mandate was refifted, in fome inflances, by men whose names deserve immortality; by Claude de Savoye, Count de Tende; by De Gorges, in Dauphine; the Marechal de Matignon, in Alençon; and the Bishop of Lireux, in his diocese. But the answer of the Viscount Ortez to the king deserves to be for ever recorded: "Sire, I have received the letter enjoining the inhabitants of Bayonne to maffacre the Protestants. Your majesty has many faithful subjects in this city, but not one executioner." These instances of clemency were however but few; and on the whole it is calculated that at least fixty thousand of the most worthy and industrious of the inhabitants of France were murdered in cold blood.

The following character of this excellent queen, by Bishop Burnet, is too just to be omitted in this place. "If Jane of Navarre," fays he, " had had a larger sphere, she was indeed a perfect pattern. Nothing was ever suggested to leffen her, but that which was her true glory, her receiving the Reformation. She both received it, and brought her subjects to it. She not only reformed her court, but her whole principality to fuch a degree, that the golden age seemed to have returned under her, or rather christianity appeared again with the purity and lustre of its first beginnings. Nor is there one fingle abatement to be made her; only her principality was narrow. Her dominion was fo little extended, that, though fhe had the rank and dignity of a queen, yet it looked rather liker the shadow than the reality of the fovereignty; or rather it was fovereignty in miniature; though the colours were bright, it was of the smallest form."

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MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUS-TOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF KAMTSCHATKA.

(Concluded from page 231.)

IN building their huts the Kamtschadales dig a hole in I the earth about five feet deep, the breadth and length are proportioned to the number of people defigned to live in it. In the middle of this hole they place four thick wooden pillars; over these they lay balks, upon which they form the roof or ceiling, leaving in the middle a fquare opening, which ferves the double purpose of window and chimney; this they cover with grafs and earth, fo that the outfide appearance is that of a round hillock; but the infide of these huts is an oblong square, with the fire in one of the long fides: between the pillars round the walls they make benches, upon which each family lies feparately; but on the fide opposite to the fire there are no benches, that being defigned for kitchen furniture, in which they dress their victuals. The walls of their huts are adorned with mats made of grass. They enter the huts with ladders commonly placed near the fire-hearth, the smoke from which renders it almost impossible for a stranger to go up or down without being burnt, and even stifled to death, but the natives find no difficulty in it: the women do not hefitate to go through this smoke with their children upon their houlders, though there is another opening through which they are allowed to pass.

The Kamtschadales live in these huts all the winter, after which they go into others called balagans, which serve them for summer habitations and magazines to keep their provi-

In order to kindle a fire they use a board of dry wood with round holes in the side of it, and a small round stick, which they rub in one of these holes till it takes fire; and asserted of tinder they use dry grass beaten soft. These intruments are held in such esteem by the Kamtschadales, hat they are never without them, and they value them more

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than our steels and slints; but they are excessively fond of iron instruments, such as knives, hatchets, and needles. As some of them delight in war, the Russian merchants are forbidden to sell them any warlike instruments: but their ingenuity leads them to make spears and arrows out of the

iron pots and kettles which they buy.

The principal food of these people consists, as we have already observed, of dried fish. The fish are procured by the men, while the women are employed in domettic occupations, or in gathering fruits and other vegetables, which, next to dried fish, are the favourite provisions of the Kamtschadales and Russians of this country. When the women go out to make these harvests for winter confumption, it is high holyday with them, and the anniversary is celebrated by a riotous and intemperate joy, that frequently gives rife to the most extravagant and indecent scenes. They disperse in crowds through the country, finging and giving themselves up to all the abfurdities which inflamed imaginations can fuggeft: no confideration of fear or modefty restrains them. And if, during their frenzies, chance conducts a man into their hands, however resolute or active he may be, it is almost impossible that he should escape without receiving a ievere flagellation or other injury.

In domestic economy they are careful to waste no part of the fish. As soon as it is caught they first tear out the gills, which they immediately suck with extreme gratification. By another refinement of sensuality or gluttony they cut off also, at the same time, some slices of the fish, which, covered with blood, they devour with equal avidity. The fish is then gutted, and the entrails reserved for the dogs. The remainder is prepared and dried, when they eat it either boiled, roasted, or broiled, but most commonly

raw.

The entertainments and affemblies of the native Kamtfehadales are intitled to notice on account of their fingulalarity. A stranger knows not which most to admire, the fong or the dance. The latter appears to be that of savages. It consists in making regular movements, or rathe unpleasant and difficult distortions, and in uttering, at the same time, a forced and gutteral sound, like a continue

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In their dances they are fond of imitating the different animals they purfue; fuch as the partridge, but principally the bear. They represent its fluggish and stupid gait, its different feelings and fituations; as when the young ones are about her, and its agitation when purfued. They have a perfect knowledge of this animal, and must have made it their particular ftudy, for they represent all its motions as exactly as possible.

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Having thus given an account of the address with which these people counterfeit the postures and motions of the bear, who may perhaps be called, with some propriety; their dancing mafter, we will next describe the manner in which they hunt this animal. There are various modes of attacking it; fometimes they lay fnares for it: under a heavy trap, supported in the air by a scaffolding sufficiently high, they place fome kind of bait to attract the bear, and which he no fooner finells and perceives, than he eagerly advances to devour, and inflantly is he crushed by the falling of the trap. Another mode, very much adopted in this country, requires firength, courage, and great agility in those who make use of it. A Kamtschadale goes out, either alone or in company, to find a bear. He has no other arms than his gun, a kind of carbine, whose but-end is very small, a lance or spear, and his knife. His stock of provisions consists in a bundle of sish. Thus equipped, he penetrates into the thickest part of the woods, and wherever the animal is likely to have his haunt. It is commonly in briars, or among rushes in the borders of rivers and lakes, that the Kamtschadale posts himself, and waits for the approach of his adversary with patience and intrepidity; if it is necessary he will remain thus in ambuscade for a whole week together, till the bear makes his appearance. The moment it comes within his reach, he fixes in the ground a forked stick belonging to his gun, by means of which he takes a truer aim, and shoots with more certainty. It is seldom that with the smallest ball he does not strike the bear either in the head or near the shoulder, which is the tenderest part. But he is obliged to charge again instantly, ccough Vou. II. Dd because

because the bear, if the first shot has not disabled him, runs at the hunter, who has not always time for a second shot. In that case he has recourse to his lance, with which he quickly arms himself to contend with the beast, who attacks him in his turn. His life is in the most imminent danger* if he does not give the bear a mortal thrust; and in such combats it may be supposed that the man is not always the conqueror; but this does not prevent the inhatants of the country from daily exposing their lives; the frequent examples of the death of their countrymen has no effect upon them; indeed they never go out without considering before-hand that it is either to conquer or to die, and this severe alternative neither stops nor terrifies them.

They hunt other animals in the same way, such as reindeer, foxes, beavers, sables, and hares, but they have not the same danger to encounter. They will lie in ambush, armed in the manner described above; and the only hard-ship they experience results from their provision being exhausted in consequence of the long duration of the chace. They frequently submit to suffer hunger for many days together, rather than quit their stations till they have obtained the end of their pursuit; but they amply repay themselves for this fasting, by immediately devouring the slesh of the animals, and by the pleasure with which they count over the skins which they obtain from them.

The mode of catching rein-deer, which are very plentiful in some parts of Kamtschatka, is very simple and certain in its effects. They surround a certain extent with pallifadoes, leaving a few openings, in which they spread nets or snares. They then disperse, in order to drive the deer into them. These animals, by attempting to save themselves, run through the openings, and are caught either by the neck or the horns. A confiderable number always escape by tearing the nets or leaping the pallisades; meanwhile

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^{*} M. De Lesseps says, that he was affored that when a bear triumphi over his aggressor he tears his skin from the skull, draws it over his sace, and then leaves him; a mode of revenge which implies, according to the Kamtschadales, that this animal cannot endure the human aspect; and this strange prejudice supports them in the opinion of their superiority, and seems to inspire them with additional courage.

twenty or thirty men will frequently take at one time upwards of fixty deer.

The Kamtschadales are in possession of very little knowledge; on every subject their ideas are extremely limited. It is diverting to observe them attempt to reckon above ten: for having counted the fingers of both hands, they clasp them together, which fignifies ten. Then they begin with their toes and count to twenty; after which they are quite confounded, and cry metcha? that is, where shall I take more? They divide the year into ten months, some of which are longer and some shorter, and without any regard to the changes of the moon, but by the order of particular occurrences that happen in those regions. They commonly divide our year into two, so that the summer makes one year and the winter another. The former begins in May, the latter in November. They do not distinguish the days by any particular appellation, nor form them into weeks and months, nor do they know how many days there are in a year. Their epochs are marked by remarkable events, as the arrival of the Russians, &c.

By their own laws or regulations, if any one kills another, he is to be killed by the relations of the person flain. They burn the hands of the people who have been frequently caught in theft; but, for the first offence, the thief must make restitution, and be confined to solitude, without the hope of affiftance from others. They never have any disputes about their land or huts, every one having land and water more than fufficient for his wants. They think themfelves the happiest people in the world, and look upon the Ruffians who are fettled among them with great contempt.

The christian religion was introduced into this country by the conquerors, but the inhabitants know but little more of it than the ceremony of baptilin. They are ignorant of the very first principles of christianity. Slaves to their inclinations, they follow their impulse whether good or bad. Many of them, both men and women, are chamans, or believers in the witchcraft of these pretended forcerers. They dread the Rutsian priesis, and do all they can to avoidmeeting them, which, if they are not able to effect, they act the hypocrite, till they can find a convenient opportunity to

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ing to the pect; and make an escape. They pay a fecret homage to their god Koutka, and place in him to entire a confidence, that they address their prayers to him when they are defirous of obtaining any boon, or of engaging in any enterprile. When they go to the chace they abitain from washing themselves, and are careful not to make the fign of the cros: they invoke their Koutcha, and the first animal they catch is facrificed to him. After this act of devotion they conceive that their chace will be fuccessful; on the contrary, if they were to cross themselves, they would despair of catching any thing. To the same deity they conscerate their new-born children, who are destined to become chamans. The veneration of these people for forcerers can scarcely be conceived, it approaches to infanity, and is really to be pitied; for the extravagant and wild abfurdities by which these magicians keep alive the credulity of their friends, excite the indignation rather than the laughter of eye-witnesses. This Superstition is confined to but a small part of the Kamtschadales, who do not now profess their art openly, nor give the fame splendor they once did to their necromancy.

THE ANTIENT AND MODERN HISTORY OF NATIONS.

EGYPT.

(Continued from page 238.)

A FTER the death of Sefostris, we meet with another chasm in the Egyptian history, which concludes with the reign of Amasis, whom, on account of his tyranny, his subjects, joined by Actisanes, king of Ethiopia, drove from the kingdom. After the death of Actisanes, who had made himself sovereign of Egypt, the empire is said to have been in a state of anarchy till about the year 904, B. C. which, according to Sir Isaac Newton, is the period of the Trojan war. The reigning Prince in Fgypt was at that time called Cetes, by the Greeks Proteus. The priests reported that he was a magician, and could assume any shape he pleased, even that of fire. This sable derived its origin from a cul-

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tom among the Egyptians of adorning and diftinguishing the heads of their fovereigns with the representations of animals or vegetables, or even with burning incense, for the purpole of creating in beholders a greater portion of awe.

During the reign of Proteus, Paris or Alexander, the fon of Priam, king of Troy, was driven by a fform on the coast of Egypt, with Helen, whom he was carrying off from Menelaus, her hulband. When the Egyptian monarch was made acquainted with the breach of hospitality committed by Paris, he feized him, his miftrefs, and companions, with all the riches he had brought from Greece. He detained Helen with the effects belonging to Menelaus, but banished Paris and his companions from his dominions.

From this period to the days of Sabacon the Ethiopian. who conquered Egypt in 751 B.C. we have no accounts which can be depended on. Sabacon began his reign by a flagrant act of cruelty, causing the conquered prince to be burnt alive; nevertheless, as foon as he felt himself firmly. established on the throne of Egypt, he became a new man, and was diftinguished for his clemency and wisdom. This monarch is faid to have been excited to the invasion of Egypt by a dream, which affured him that he should hold the kingdom for fifty years. And we are informed that at the end of this period he had another dream, in which the tutelary deity of Thebes acquainted him that he could nolonger govern the kingdom with fafety and happines, without exercifing some signal acts of cruelty: upon this heconcluded, that it was the pleasure of the deity that Sabacon should remain no longer in Egypt, and therefore he immediately quitted that kingdom, and returned to Ethiopia.

Sethon, fon to Sabacon, succeeded his futher in 705 B.C.; he neglected his military affairs, became the priest of Vulcan, and gave himfelf up to religious contemplation. Senacherib, king of Affyria, invaded Egypt; and Sethon, deferted by his foldiers, who had been neglected and deprived of their lands by him, applied to the god Vulcan for affiftance. Encouraged by the affurance of fuccess, the king affembled a body of artificers, shop-keepers, and labourers, and with this undisciplined body he marched against the enemy, whose quivers, bow-firings, and shield-firaps, had,

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during the preceding night, been destroyed by an innumerable multitude of field rats, and who were, on that account, preparing to fly, while Sethon, taking advantage of their disorder, pursued them with great slaughter. In memory of this extraordinary event, a statue of Sethon was erected in the temple of Vulcan, holding in one hand a rat, and delivering these words, "Whesever beholdeth me let him be pious."

Soon after the death of Sethon the form of government was totally changed. The kingdom was divided into twelve parts, over which as many of the chief nobility prefided. This divition continued but for a short time. The superior ambition and talents of Pfammatichus, one of the princes, united the power of the kingdom in his own person, about 655 years before Christ, and restored peace to his domimions. Egyptian hiftory now begins to be divefted of fable, and from this time may be accounted equally certain with that of any other nation. The vali conquests of Sefoltris were now no longer known; for I fammatichus poffeffed not more than the country of Egypt iti If. It appears, indeed, that neither Seiostris nor his fuccetfors had made ule of any means to keep in Subjection the countries they had once conquered, the consequence of which was that, on his return, the vast empire vanished of itself.

Plammaticus, to secure himself on his throne, hired soreign troops, encouraged navigation and commerce, invited foreigners to fettle in Egypt, and granted them particular immunities and privileges. These proceedings excited in his subjects jealousy and discontent. Numbers of them abandoned their country, and retired to diffant regions. Notwithstanding this discontent, the commercial system was established, and made a surprising alteration in the genius and disposition of the people. They became more liberal and refined. An air of bufiness, alacrity, and intelligence, was diffused through the whole kingdom. The focial arts were practifed with elegance, and the fciences were brought to a degree of perfection which they have never exceeded in Egypt. The monarch himself was a great encourager of knowledge: he fent out fome learned men to discover the source of the Nile; and attempted to

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ascertain which was the most antient nation in the world by the following method. He caused two infants to be brought up in such a manner as never to hear the found of a human voice, upon the prefumption that they would naturally speak the original language of mankind. At two years of age they pronounced the Phrygian word becces, or some found resembling it, which fignifies bread; he thence concluded that the Phrygians were the most antient people in the world. Nechus, the fon and successor of Psammatichus, came to the throne in the year 617 B.C.; he is the Pharoah-Necho of Scripture,* and was a prince of an enterprifing and warlike genius. In the beginning of his reign he attempted to cut through the ifthmus between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean; but through the obstacles which nature had thrown in the way he was obliged to abandon the enterprife, after having loft a hundred and twenty thouland men in the attempt. He afterwards fent a thip to exp'ore the coasts of Africa, which, in the course of three years, failed around the continent, and returned to Egypt, where the relation of the fact was deemed incredible. This prince overthrew the king of Affyria in battle, and made himself master of Syria and Phænicia; but in the midst of his prosperity, Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, came upon him with a mighty army, defeated him, and made himself the master of the whole country.

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A few years after this defeat Nebuchadnezzar returned to Egypt with a powerful army, laid waste the kingdom, drove Apries, the successor to Nechus, from the throne; invested Amasis with the supreme power; and carried an incredible quantity of spoil with multitudes of captives to Babylon, which, rather than permanent conquests, seems to have been the object of Nebuchadnezzar's expedition.

During the reign of Amasis, which commenced 569 years B. C., Egypt is said to have been perfectly happy, and to have contained twenty thousand populous cities. To establish and maintain good order among such a numerous people, Amasis enacted, on the pain of death, that every Egyptian should, once a year, inform the governor of his province by what means he gained his livelihood. This

^{2.} Chronicles, chap. xxxv. verse 20:

prince was a great friend to the Greeks, who were permitted to carry on their trade, and even to erect temples to their own deities in Egypt. He was visited by Solon, the Athenian lawgiver; and he afterwards reduced the island of Cyprus under his subjection. After a prosperous reign of forty-four years Amasis died, leaving his kingdom to his fon Psammenitus. The new monarch had scarcely feated himself upon the throne, when Cambyses at the head of a large Persian army invaded the country, laid fiege to Pelufium, which he made himfelf mafter of by the following firatagem; he placed at the front of the army a number of cats, and other animals that were deemed faered by the Egyptians, and then attacked the city, and took it without opposition, the Egyptian garrison not daring to throw a dart of shoot an arrow against their enemies, left they fhould kill fome of the holy animals. Thus Cambyfes, the fon Cyprus, reduced Egypt, and made it tributary to Perfia B. C. 525.

The Egyptians were now reduced to the lowest degree of flavery. Their country became a province to the Persian empire, nor were they able ever after to shake off the yoke fo long as that empire sublisted. They frequently revolted, indeed, but were always overthrown with prodigious loss; and Fgypt was a part of the Persian Empire till

Alexander the Great put an end to it B. C. 331.

After the death of Alexander the Great, Ptolemy, one of his generals, took possetsion of Fgypt (B. C. 323), and he and his posterity maintained themselves upon the throne for the space of two hundred and forty years. Of these the most remarkable are the following:-Ptolemy, firnamed Lagus, who made himself master of Phænicia and the neighbouring coast of Syria; he reduced Jerusalem, and carried 100,000 prisoners to Egypt to people the extensive city of Alexandria, which became the capital of his dominions. These prisoners became the most faithful of all his subjects, by the liberality with which he treated them. While he extended his dominions, Ptolemy was not negligent of the advantages of his people. The bay of Alexandria being dangerous of access, he built a tower to conduct the failors with fafety, in the obscurity of night;

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and that his subjects might be acquainted with literature, he laid the soundation of a library, which, under the succeding reigns, became the most celebrated in the world. He also established in the capital of his dominions a society called the mulæum, of which the members, maintained at public expence, were employed in philosophical researches, and in the advancement of science.

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Ptolemy Philadelphus is celebrated as a writer, as well as a fovereign: among many valuable works which have been loft, we have to regret an history of Alexander the Great by the king of Egypt, greatly admired and valued for elegance and authenticity. This fovereign gave the greatest possible encouragement to commerce, and by keeping two powerful fleets, one in the Mediterranean and the other in the Red Sea, he made Egypt the mart of the world. He was the richest of all the monarchs of his age; his palace was the afylum of learned men, whom he patronized. The library, at his death, confifted of two hundred thoufand volumes, of the choicest books, and it was afterwards encreased to seven hundred thousand. Part of it was afterwards burnt by the flames of Cæsar's fleet, and the whole was again magnificently repaired by Cleopatra, who added to the Egyptian library that of the kings of Pergamus. The Old Tetlament, it is faid, was translated into Greek during his reign. This translation has been called the feptuagint, because it was translated by the labours of seventy different persons.

The fuccessor to Philadelphus, in acknowledgment of his attention, beneficence, and religious zeal for the gods of his country, was entitled Ptolemy Euergeles. He restored to the temples two thousand five hundred statues of the Egyptian gods, which Cambyses had carried away into Petia, when he conquered the country. By his moderation, prudence, and valour, he became very popular among his subjects, and commanded the respect of his enemies. He is said to have purchased of the Athenians the right of translating the original manuscripts of Eschylus, Euripides, and Sophocles.

The historical accounts of the remaining Ptolemies are so much stained with wickedness and cruelties, that we shall

finish

finish this period of Egyptian history with observing, that upon the death of Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, who was the daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, and the fifter and wife of Ptolemy Dienysius, Egypt shared the fate of other kingdoms, and became a part of the Roman Empire. Augustus divided the government among feveral persons of the equestrian order, judging it not fafe to trust a nation so daring and inconstant in the hands of his fenators, who were otherwise too powerful. While Egypt remained subject to the Roman jurisdiction, history has recorded nothing memorable concerning it.

In swant . To be concluded in out next.) and bondon al ready objerved that the lemments of up author have great

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

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On Tafte, Literature, and the Art of Camposition.

CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO peculiar stands. The His son. Stank religion

defined bing turn of threaten recount to himself, which ground or aman rain LETTER XI. The

My dear George,

calustinga aid and --

S the proper management of figures is a matter of great importance, especially to young writers, I shall endeavour to fet before you, in one view, the rules necelfary to be observed with respect to figurative language.

1st, Remember that the beauty and excellence of a composition depends chiefly on the sentiments. Many of the noblest examples of eloquence are in the most simple style, and entirely destitute of tropes and figures. If, indeed, the thoughts are noble, and the language concife and perspicuous, it will always excite our approbation, and command our regard.

2ndly, All figures ought to rife naturally from the fub-The greatest art lies in concealing art. There can be nothing more ridiculous than to fee an author hunting about for ornaments, and tacking them to the subject like lace upon cloaks. This, they fay, is to embellish; but, in orm. Sdly,

general, it will be found to deform.

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3dly, They should not be used too often—" simplex munditiis" is a good rule.—Again, let it be a principle never to attempt an ornamental style, unless you find that your genius is adapted to it. A writer may succeed well in some species of composition, without figurative language, but he must always make a poor appearance when he offers violence to nature. As some subjects require more ornament than others, so some parts of the same discourse are more susceptible of it than others, the peroration or winding up of a discourse requires more than the argumentative part

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In confidering the general characters of ftyle, I have already observed that the sentiments of an author have great influence upon his style. Every man has his particular way of thinking, and of courfe his peculiar manner of expression. I have formerly taken notice of the effect of fingle words in language; and I have to add, that the choice and use of these form what is called an author's style, or peculiar manner of writing. Every author has generally some turn of expression peculiar to himself, which characterizes his style; and if any writer seems to belong fometimes to one class, fometimes to another, he is generally regarded as a fecondary genius, and we fay he has no ftyle at all. Dionyfius Halecarniffenfis divides ftyle into three kinds; the austere, the florid, and the middle. he means that which depends entirely on the strength of the thought, without harmony or ornament. By the fecond, that which is arranged in all the pomp and majetty of figures: and the last possesses a moderate share of both. the writers of this latter class, he enumerates Homer, Thucidydes, Plato, and even Aristotle. Surely, then, it must be a wide class under which both Aristotle and Plato can be comprehended. Cicero and Quinctilian also mention three species of composition, the simplex or tenui, the grave or vehement, and the medium or temperatum genus dicendi; but they treat of these in such a loose way, that it would be of little advantage to follow their method. I shall therefore endeavour to confider the subject in a more particular manner. Style has been claffed by fome English critics of great eminence under four heads, the concife, the diffuse.

diffule, the nervous, and the feeble. Others again have adopted a different division; namely, the dry, the plain, the neat, the elegant, and the florid. To purfue, however, the first arrangement, I shall make a few remarks on that kind of ftyle, which is called the concile. When the writer comprehends much fentiment in few words, he is properly termed a coneile writer. By this practice he leaves a good deal to be supplied by his reader, and always fuggelts more than he expresses. As every kind of compofition is liable to an extreme, which is faulty; fo the extreme of this is the abstructe or obscure. The second kind of ftyle, and directly opposite to the concise is the diffuse. An author addicted to this unfolds his thoughts completely before us, turns his subject in every possible direction, and places it in various lights. In peruting a concite writer, if you apprehend his thought at the very first, which he endeavours to fix as precifely as possible, it is well; but if not, you may despair of having it a second time, or seeing it in another shape; whereas a diffuse writer is not anxious about producing his strongest arguments at first, nor those in their most perfect drefs, but returns frequently to them; and by howing them in all their lights reaches the conviction that he aims at. When the images of the things are drawn in this full proportion, painted in their proper colours, fet in a clear light, and represented in different views, they captivate the mind of the audience, excite a high degree of pleasure, draw the attention, and, with a force irrelifible, move and bend them to the defire of the speaker. We should not, however, indulge the taste for a diffuse flyle, so much as to collect and heap together the most weak and trifling arguments. The extreme of the diffuse is the dull and languid. Tacitus among the antients, and Montesquieu among the moderns, are remarkable for concileuels. Aristotle too, is one of the most purely concife writers: he feems a simple intelligence, addreffing himfelf to our understandings alone. And was it not for the close attent on we are obliged to pay to his fense, we should feel a great difgust at his style and manner. In his concideness, therefore, we are not to imitate him. On the contrary, Cicero among the antients, Mr. Addison,

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and perhaps Sir William Temple among the moderns; excel in the diffuse. Each of these modes have their advantage, and when well conducted please. We are at a loss to say, whether the diffuse narrative of Livy, or the beautiful concileness of Sallust is most agreeable. A diffuse and copious style is more necessary in such discourses as are to be spoken, than in those that are to be read; for when we read a book, we can paule and reflect upon what is the other's meaning, but in discourses that are to be spoken, the orator should be copious, and set every thing in the clearest point of view. In description, or an address to the passions, we should not be copious; but we should always be full in argument and reasoning. A narrative may admit of either. Concife writers generally make use of thort periods. Those of diffuse writers are for the most part long: this, however, does not always hold. Though Seneca's periods are short, yet he is by no means a concise writer in its proper sense. He transfigures the same sentitiment into many different forms, and makes it appear again and again in some new shape. And though Cicero is commonly thought one of the most diffuse writers, yet we shall find more sentiment in one of his pages than in one of Seneca's. The modern French writers generally use thort sentences, yet they are not concise. A small portion of fentiment, indeed, may be diffused over a number of sentences; but conciseness consists in delivering much fentiment in few words. Lord Clarendon has very long sentences in his history, yet he is not one of the most diffuse authors. Thus far I think it right to state, lest conciseneis should be supposed to consist in the shortness of the sentences. With respect to the use of these, I have already faid, that a composition is most agreeable to the ear, where there is a happy mixture of fnort and long fentences.

The foundation of another diffinction of fiyle is laid in the author's ideas; viz. that between the nervous and feeble style. If the author's conception of things is clear, strong, and distinct, the expression will correspond with the ideas, since language is nothing but a copy of those ideas that are first conceived in the mind. If, therefore,

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these images are faint, impersect, or distorted, the style will be flat, languid, or dissonant. With respect to conciseness or dissurements, an author may incline either to the one side or the other, and yet excell; but no such rule will hold in this case, all writers should study the nervous, as an important qualification, and in proportion as they ad-

vance to it they are worthy of praise.

Notwithstanding that this is an excellent property of composition, yet there is an extreme even here, for the nervous carried too far degenerates into harfnness. Of all the antients, Demotihenes excelled in the nervous tiyle; and perhaps Dr. Robertson's history may be equal in this peculiar excellence with most modern productions. In the time of Elizabeth, James and Charles the First, the English writers fell into the other extreme, having no model of language, and in the infancy of it, they followed the Latins both in the fiyle and confiruction. They introduced a great number of latinized words, which they were, in some measure, obliged to make use of, in order to supply the barrenness of their own tongue. The two languages are, however, very different in their idioms, and by this means they rendered their ftyle harsh and obscure. Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Bacon, Chillingworth, and Milton in his profe works, are instances of this. After the restoration of Charles the Second, they began to fludy smoothness and harmony in composition. Lord Clarendon was the first who attempted to recover language from this harfliness; he fucceeded in the attempt, and yet preserved its strength. All his contemporary writers, or, as Mr. Pope has well expressed it, the mob of gentlemen who wrote with ease, by too great an attention to impothness, fell into the opposite extreme. In the reign of Queen Anne, strength and smoothness were happily united; and Pope and Addison, Atterbury and St. John, have not been excelled, and but feldom equalled by any fucceeding writers.

The other division of style at which I hinted in the beginning of this letter is chiefly expressive of the gradations of ornament. It, A dry manner naturally excludes all ornament. It is obvious that this style can only be appro-

stricted above, particularly Mr. Gibbon and Wis.

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printe in scientific or didactic works; and even there great perspicuity and interesting matter are necessary to render it tolerable. Aristotle is an example of this kind.

The next in order is the plain ftyle. Authors of this kind are not entire ftrangers to ornament, but generally despife it, and chiefly ftudy perspicuity and propriety. Dr. Swift is an author of this kind, and may be confidered as a model of the plain ftyle. No man was ever more master of the English language, or understood it better; but he despised all ornaments, both in his humorous and his serious writings. His wit consisted in things, not in words; but in his humorous pieces the plainness of his manner is esten found to set off his wit to the best advantage.

3d, In treating of what the Scotch call a neat style, we find ourselves transported within the regions of ornament. It consists in the choice of the most proper words, and their proper arrangement. It admits of figures but spaningly. The late archbishop Secker, was it not for occasional negligence, might be cited as an instance of this siyle.

4thly, The elegant contains in it all the perfection of eloquence. It pleases the sancy, charms the ear, and informs the understanding. Mr. Addison stands at the head of that class of writers, who excelled in it in the last age, and with him may be classed Atterbury, Bolingbroke, Pope, Temple, and Dryden. There is, indeed, a great difference between the style of these writers, and each of them have their faults, as we shall have occasion to show afterwards, yet each of them are possessed of a portion of elegance. Among the more modern authors, Dr. Johnson, I think, occupies the first place, not only for strength but elegance. Dr. Robertson, Mr. Gibbon, Mr. Burke, Hawksworth, Seed, Ogden, and Goldsmith may justly be regarded as elegant writers.

bthly, The florid pays great attention to figures, and every ornament, to the neglect fometimes of fentiment and perspicuity.

This is certainly a fault in many who are otherwise approapprogood authors, and the centure is applicable to some who priate rementioned above, particularly Mr. Gibbon and Mr.

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Burke. According to Quinctihan, when this ftyle is accompanied with a poverty of matter, it is providing cloaths without a body. A luxuriance of expression is, indeed, pardonable, and fometimes perhaps commendable in youth, Superfluities may be retrenched, redundancies may be lopt off, and incorrectness may be mended, but for barrenness there is scarcely any cure. But when the judgment begins to ripen, it is expected that it should lay aside every thing that is redundant and puerile. Mr. Hervey, in his Meditations, has fallen into this fault. The great popularity of the Meditations is, I am happy to fay, an evidence that there are still some persons of devout thought among us; yet a fondness for his sparkling and florid expression is but a bad proof of the refined talte of the public. I would, therefore, recommend it to you to imitate Mr. Hervey's piety, but not his ftyle, or, according to Mr. Pope, "to turn your attention from found to fenfe, from fancy to the heart," &c.

FIRST PRIZE ESSAY.

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ON THE SUBJECT,

"Which of the Fine Arts, Poetry, Painting, or Music, is on the whole most productive of innocent Pleasure."

By Master WILLIAM ROBERT HAWKES, AGED 15 YEARS AND 9 MONTHS,

Of Melborn, in Cambridgefhire.

WITH respect to the question proposed, which of the fine arts is most productive of innocent pleasure, though painting and music justly possess a high rank among elegant accomplishments, yet upon impartial consideration, and after having seriously reslected upon the respective properties of each, I am inclined to give the preference to poetry, and shall endeavour to state my reasons for so highly estimating this charming science, and to show why it appears to claim the superiority, as being most productive of innocent pleasure.

It is an undeniable truth, that the arts of painting an music are both elegant accomplishments, especially who carried to perfection. They charm and delight all who

are not destitute of sense and feeling; surely then the pleafure must be doubly great to those who are critically skilled
in these ornamental branches of education. Music is admirably calculated to elevate the spirits, and not only dispels melancholy, but raises devotion; and on this account, perhaps, it is represented in scripture as forming
part of the happiness of the celestial state. When tired
with the business of the day, it affords a delightful relaxation; and if our skill in this art enables us to contribute
to the gratification of our friends, it must be peculiarly satissactory to a benevolent mind.

The original intention of painting was probably to perpetuate the memory of great events; but fince the invention of printing we have less need of its affiliance to reprefent the heroic actions of the great, tince the poet or hiftorian performs this service in a more correct and durable manner. Painting at most can but derive its excellence from the exact fymmetry, and the beautiful and firiking expression of the characters represented. It delights, indeed, and ravishes the eye of the spectator for a moment, but is forgotten almost as soon as his attention is called to another object. Thus it appears that the pleasure derived from painting is transitory, as are all its advantages. Would not a man of worth prefer having his character delineated by a celebrated poet, to the honour of having his portrait taken, or his actions represented by an inimitable painter? Surely then, poetry possesses innumerable claims to recommend it to our effeem, and is not only deferving of our admiration for the grandeur and the beauty of the fiyle and verification, but what principally enhances its value, and what certainly must be productive of innocent pleafure, is the examples which it affords, and the striking and majestic manner in which the actions of great and good men are pourtrayed, and the glowing colours in which virtue is held up to be imitated and admired. By the composition or study of poetry we are enabled to express our ideas in the most forcible manner, and it furnishes us with language fuited to every Subject, whether we are occupied in the service of God or man. Who can review the majesty of Milton, the elegance of Pope, or the pointed

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and farcastic humour of Swift, without not only being filled with astonishment and admiration, but in some degree elevated to the same grandeur of thought, the same force of expression? A poetic talent, or even an acquaintance with the best poets, is an accomplishment at once the most ornamental and captivating. Does it not then claim our highest regard? and can music or painting be compared with it, either as the means of procuring innocent gratification, or personal improvement, moral or intellectual? It is commonly faid, that poets are born and not made : but by application and perseverance, if you do not excel in poetical composition, yet your understanding will be enriched with many refined and fublime ideas. Poetry invigorates the powers of the mind, and dispels the gloom of many a folitary hour, when the heart is oppressed with care, and nature finks into despondency. It raises and exhibitrates our torpid spirits, it cheers us in prosperity, and soothes us in advertity, fo that it is no vain boaft of the poct's, when he fays,

" Of all those arts in which the wife excel,

" Nature's chief mafter-piece is writing well:

" No writing lifts exalted man fo high

" As facred and felf moving poefy.

" No kind of work requires so nice a touch; " And if well finish'd nothing shines so much."

SECOND PRIZE ESSAY. ON THE SUBJECT.

" Is Mufic, Poetry, or Painting the most conducive to innocent Amusement ?"

BY MASTER R. V. YATES.

USIC, poetry, and painting have been elegantly IVA represented by the ancients as a group of celestial virgins, adorned wih every grace, and skilled in every branch of science; companions in their primitive state, and united by the strongest ties of affection, they mutually enhanced the value of each other, music heightening the charms of poetry, as poetry did those of painting. Thus they lived in a state of harmony and happiness, till they

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were one day alarmed by the rude intrusion of three strangers, who had become enamoured of their charms. As merit is always modelt, they fled, and in the hurry of affright they separated, and each pursued a different path. Fatal intrusion, which has caused the dissolution of so much beauty, grace, and loveliness, they have never fince been found united.

The strangers were not long in forming their resolution; feeing that they could only be overtaken by diligence and perseverence, they immediately set out on the pursuit, each following the nymph who had pleafed his fancy moft. The goddels of music, by her attractive melody, led Philo-musicus, which was the name of her pursuer, to a company of profligate and abandoned wretches, who were continually undermining the principles of virtue, and whose only defire was pleafure, and the gratification of their appetites and passions. Though he was naturally of a virtuous disposition, yet being unable to withstand the ridicule of his new acquaintance, he foon adopted their manners and vices, and when feen with a fiddle under his chin, or a pipe in his mouth, was ever after an object of derision and contempt to his former companions.

The path which the goddess of poetry followed was rugged and uneven, strewed with thorns and briars, and filled with obitacles, infurmountable to the greatest perfeverance, if unaffifted by genius. Not discouraged, however, by these difficulties, and animated by her charms, which were even more attractive than those of her filters. Chærillus followed but was unable to overtake her. a long and painful pursuit he at last traced her as far as a difmal garret in London; but here he was utterly at a loss how to proceed; and for this reason we see this insatuated scribbler and his descendants still continue to seek ber, though without fuccess, leaving an example calculated to deter those who are not blest with genius from attempting the walks of poetry.

Apelles was more fortunate in his pursuit; by perseverance he foon attained the object of his wifnes, and amply were his pains rewarded. His lovely companion pointed out to him new beauties in nature, which he had never

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before observed, and which it was impossible to contemplate without admiration and delight. As nothing can tend more to strengthen and elevate the mind than a full enjoyment of the beauties of nature, the science of painting diffused a calm serenity over his spirits, and afforded him an inexhaustible source of instruction and entertainment. When the scene represented a country smiling in beauty, abounding in fruits, and amply supplying all the real wants of man, he learnt to admire the divine giver of these good gifts, and

" Look from nature up to nature's god."-POPE.

When the lofty mountain raifed its awful head above the ftorm, and defied the angry tempelts that growled below, he learnt to adore the majesty of its more awful maker. If the canvas glowed with acts of charity, benevolence, and justice; if an Howard or an Aristides graced the scene, his breast glowed with the like patsions; but if, on the contrary, revenge with lowering look, and palefaced envy spread their baneful influence around, he shrunk from the idea of resembling them, and was led to cultivate the god-like virtue of forgivenels. By continually observing the beauty of virtue, and the deformity of vice, he learnt to aspire to the one, and abhor the other: and thus regulating his conduct, the fun of his days, after running a glorious courfe, set unclouded by regret; serene and bright in the joyful expectation of adorning another and a better world. Nor did death, by putting an end to his existence, rob him of the fruits of his labours. They were crowned with immortality, and had the honour of fustaining the falling dignity of his country. Rome, once the mistress of the earth, would now be an infignificant village, a milerable cell of monks, did not the science of painting support its reputation, and still render it one of the noblest cities in the world.

Thus painting promoted the knowledge and improved the heart of Apelles, excited him to virtue, and proved a fludy fo full of pleasureable advantage, that he had no reason to repent his choice, fince though music was easily attained, it proved in the end a source of disgrace; and though poetry was accompanied by so many charms, the

path

path to excellence was too laborious to be climbed without the greatest genius as well as perseverance.

The f llowing Poem, though not correct, yet evinces for much genius in for young a candidate, that we have deemed it not unworthy of infertion.

"Which of the Fine Arts, Poetry, Painting, or Music, is (on the whole) most productive of innocent Pleasure?

BY MASTER WILLIAM CHARLTON,

AGED 13 YEARS 9 MONTHS.

Of Whitehurch School, near Briftol.

To pleasures cheering, yet refined,
To pleasures cheering, yet refined,
That flow from Wisdom's purest stream,
The Muse attempts an ard'ous theme.
Like Paris summon'd to decree,
The fairest of the lovely three,
Fearless I'd venture to decide,
Had I Minerva for my guide.

O Music! foother of the ear, Attractor of the pearly tear, Soft closer of the watchful eye, Seducer of the rifing figh, Dear enlivener of the heart, and we like the Inflamer of Love's pointed dart. Thy power can the captive cheer; Or foothe the forrowful career, When fitting by the wild cafcade, Under some mournful cypres shade, Lone Solitude thy strains invite, Thy strings still tun'd to silent night. Thy voice stern Anger will beguile, And change his frowning to a fmile. The favage rude to woods confin'd, Howling to the furious wind, January in the contra

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Inspired by thy charm so bright, His foul receives a gleam of light. E'en trembling Fear thou can'st inspire, And fet his snowy heart on fire. Now comes Revenge, unknown to rest, Attired in a bloody vest; His hollow cheeks worn out with hate, Or blafted with the stroke of Fate: But where he finds thy foothing balm, The raging torrent feels a calm. Now let us louder speak thy praise, And tell the tales of ancient days, How Orpheus tun'd thy heav'nly found, And made huge mountains dance around; Whole foreits mov'd in Nature's spite, And shook in the musician's fight; To heed the touch, each rock 'tis faid, Lifted on high its jutting head; Such sweetness did his harp attain, That rivers stopt to hear its strain; Wild beafts he drew from their retreat. Tamely to fawn beneath his feet. He melted Pluto and all Hell; Such are the deeds which Poets tell; And fuch thy charms, O lovely maid! To thee much honour then be paid.

Next, Painting claims the praifes due:
Goddels of each lovely view,
Pencil'd by Art with flowing care;
Who steals her charms from Nature's share.
Young smiling Spring with blooming eye,
In thee appears with ev'ry dye.
The May-bush whiten'd by its flowers,
Shines brightly with Aurora's showers:
Thou copiest Summer's cooling shade,
Its riv'let flowing down the glade,
Where each passing traveller bends,
To taste the pleasure it attends.
In thee stout such terms rain the ground:

Last, chilly Winter comes so old, Shaking his fnowy beard with cold: And, bitten by the aged fire, Each rustic seeks his homely fire; By thee the hermit's cell is fhewn, With moss and ivy overgrown; His garden green, his falling door, His bed of leaves, his earthy floor; His craggy wall with pictures grac'd, By old fwiit-moving Time defac'd; Then, wrinkled both by age and care, And feated in a wicker chair, The hermit fee: his eyes fedate, Fixt on the embers of his grate; Forc'd from the world by Mis'ry's rod, Inding his life-time with his God, Now let us change the lonely scene, To daify'd meads and hillocks green; The hawthorn's leaf, the church-yard yew, Fair spangled with the morning dew; And on the pebbled streamlet's fide, With modelt look, and decent pride, Soft rifing from its graffy bed, The primrose shews its yellow head; Beneath each hedge with maiden fear, The blue-ey'd violets appear: The cottage peeping through the trees, That gives to labour rest and ease. Perhaps some tow'r in ruins lie, Its top once nodding to the fky; But flevel'd by some cong'ror's stroke) Beneath the dust its honours choke: Sometimes display'd the walks and bowers Beautify'd with various flowers; The woodbine fweet, the jess'mine green, While fragrant roses intervene. Thus Painting Nature's fhades invite, Each colour, and each tint fo bright; Thus Painting acts her sprightly part, And thews us Nature changed to Art.

O, what pleasure it must be, Underneath fome fliady tree, M /4

While lively zephyrs fweep the ground,

19dio To pencil off the country round : Iring one to a Ingira Beauteous maid! Appelles' friend, my a si shaming

What can thy winning grace transcend?

-sad and Laftly, comes Poetry divine, in business be Companion of the lovely Nine; Sweetly fhe rolls her flowing voice, and stone of

And of the Three, attracts my choice; it bloded so From whence arose great Homer's skill,

Who charms at first, and charms us still?

Or shall I mention Virgil's verse? of h Or lively Terence' parts rehearfe? and and on of view Their fame though many ages past,

Yet lives, and will for ever laft. He as street of mile

And though within their clay-cold grave, Sweet myrtles o'er their bodies wave ;

What bleft delight, what lib'ral pleasure, Do those enjoy who have this treasure;

So pure, so ample, so refin'd, To cheer and elevate the mind?

Yet, magic Music must I slight!

And Painting, Nature's child fo bright!

I do: My vote for thee I bear, Sweet Poetry, for ever fair; ad Mastrada rogon

Fame refts her golden wings on thee,

Lovelieft of the lovely Three; dansight dansage Yes, fairer than thy Sisters thou, many minds out Celetial maid, with laurel'd brow. he formand

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WILLIAM CHARLTON.

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world theverable spiles gives; the e.g. more than any other orbelongs to the foul, it feems to be in contact with it,

ZIRRIZE a part in all its movements , it expresses passions · 1/ 11 / 1 / 1 / 10/

PRIZE TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

BY MASTER STICKNEY.

VERY thing in man declares him to be the fovereign of the carth; his decided superiority over all other animals is even flamped on his exterior, and his upright and elevated deportment imperiously announces authority and command: his head which is raifed towards the heavens, prefents a majeftic face, whereon his dignity is written in notable and friking characters: In his physiognomy we behold the picture of his foul, for his spiritual nature pierces through the material organs and with its divine fire animates the features; -but his august carriage, his firm and folid step, demonstrate his nobleness and rank, for he only touches the earth with his lowest extremities, and sees it afar off, feemingly with disdain. His arms are not given him to serve as pillars for the body to bear and rest upon, nor is it intended that his hand, the principal organ of feeling should delve in the ground, so as to lose, by repeated friction and toil, its fine and delicate fense. The arms and hands are detigned for the nobleft purposes. It is their function to minister to the pleasures and desires of the will; to procure things which are of difficult access, to remove obstacles, to prevent and counteract all those accidents which might pain and approved us: to lay hold of and keep in possession, that which is gratifying, and to supply with proper objects all the other fenses. When tranquillity pervades the foul, the features are ftill and ferene, their agreement, their union, and perfect coincidence clearly indicate a calm accordant state of mind. But when the foul is perturbed, the face of man becomes a lively picture in which the passions are exquisitely and energetically depicted, in which each impulse and struggle of the heart is expressed by a feature or look, whose suggestion quick and pointed, in pite of our wishes to the contrary, reveals and outwardiy xpresses some tokens, of the troubles and anxieties which orture us within; and these tokens are by much the most ended diffeoverable in the eyes; the eye more than any other or-PRIZE and to take a part in all its movements; it expresses passions and

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and emotions the most lively and vehement as well as the most placid and delicate affections, and genuinely describes them as they are conceived at the heart. It conveys them by irresistible glances, which as it were carry in them another soul, the fire, the emotion, and the picture of that, from which they are derived. In short, the eye both discovers and reveals the secret revolvings of thought and the ardour of feeling: it is the interpreter of the mind, and speaks naturally the most intelligible language.

I declare, the above to be my own, fole, and unaided

production, and that I am not nine years of age.

THOMAS STICKNEY.

Attestation.

I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, that Master T. Stickney, of the age specified, has received no assistance in the above translation, either by explanation, suggestion, correction, or in any way directly or indirectly. In allowing for his extreme youth, he both speaks and writes French with uncommon accuracy and fluency.

W. M. ASHTON.

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To the above we add our solemn attestation.

SEBAST. MARCOUR, French Maker, JOHN HUDSON, Writing Makter.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES

GIVEN WITH THE ELEVENTH NUMBER.

CLASS I.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

Question—" Which of the fine Arts, Poetry, Painting, or Mufic, is (on the whole) most productive of innocent pleasure?"

The first prize has been adjudged to Master W. R. HAWKES, of Melbourn, in Cambridgeshire, aged 15 years 9 months. Attested by his tutor, Mr. Carver.

To receive a pair of twelve-inch Globes, value Thru Guineas.

The

The second to Master R. V. YATES. of Mr. Corrie's Academy, Birmingham, aged 15. Atteffed by Mr. Corrie.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Mafter JOHN GREGORY, of Meffis. Palmers' School, Hackney, aged 12. Attetted by Mr. Palmer. 1901 1909

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Education, information entire terroit par elegan bas to

The fourth to Miss JANE LEWIS, of North Baddesley, aged 14. Attested by her father.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Plutarch.

The fifth to Miss SARAH D. METCALF, of Holborn-Hill, aged 15. Attested by her mother.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The fixth to Malter THOMAS ALLIES, of Worcester Academy, aged 15. Attefted by the mafter, Mr. Ofborn.

To receive Dr. Goldsmith's History of England.

The feventh to Mafter JOHN MAVOR, of Woodflock, aged 15. Atteffed by Mr. Pratt.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edution.

The eighth to Miss JANE ALICE SMITH, of Whittlesea, aged 11. Attested by her totor, the Rev. G. Burges.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The ninth to Miss ELIZA MARTINEA, of Mrs. Green's feminary, Gower-street, aged 14. Attested by the Rev. F. Grant M'Gregor.

To receive Miss More's Sacred Dramas.

The tenth to Miss ISABELLA ORMSTON, of Newcastle, aged 14. Attested by her mother.

To receive Allen's History of England.

The eleventh to Master J. PELL, of Olney school, aged 11. Attested by the head master, Mr. Haddon.

To receive Evenings at Home, Vol. 1, 2, 3.

or Mure ?" WKES.

Th

Miss CAROLINE FIELD would have been entitled to a prize ad the not been excluded by the rule which prohibits those who ave received a first prize from receiving another during fix months. hree very good poetical attempts have been received, one of which printed; the others are by Mailer S. MERSOM, of Worcester, te Three al 15; and by Master J. FINCH, of Mr. Wick's Academy, nglefield-Green.

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A confiderable degree of merit is confpicuous in the following Productions; and we have great pleasure in noticing them as HIGHLY COMMENDABLE.

Master Major Ainger, aged 15 years, of the Rev. G. Burges' academy, at Whittlefea.

Master John Andrews, aged 14, son of Mr. John Andrews, of Olney, Bucks.

Mifs Francis Allies, aged 14, of Messis. Robins's academy, Worcester.

Miss Maria Barr, aged 12, of ditto.

Master William Barnes, aged 14 and eight months, of Mr. Barnes's Grammar-Ichool, Barnard Castle.

Mafter John Brown, aged 15 and 9 months, of ditto.

Mafter John Button, aged 14, of the Rev. J. Peers' feminary, Thorp

Master John Beddome, aged 14, of Mess. Palmer's academy, Hackney Master George Barr, aged 14 and a half, of the Rev. Mr. Osborne's academy, Angel-Row, Worcester.

Miss Augusta Barclay, aged 16, of Mrs. and the Miss Swallwood's boarding school, Croom's hill, Greenwich.

Master William Brown. aged 14, son of Mrs. B. Brown, of Houghton-le-spring, Durham.

Mils A. M. Bennett, aged 16, daughter of Mrs. A. M. Bennett, of King-street, Portsca.

Miss Emma Brisco, aged 15, of Mrs. Green's seminary, Upper Gower-street.

Malter F. Betts, aged 13, and 9 months, of Mr. R. Comfield's academy, Northampton.

Miss Priscilla Clarke, aged 14, of Mrs. Eves's Crescent school, Birmingham.

Master John Crosse, aged 14, of the Rev. J. Peer's seminary, Thorp Arch.

Master Francis Cohen, aged 12 years an 15 months, son of Meyer Cohen, Esq. of Southampton-street, Bloomsbury; and private pupil of Dr. Montucci, and Mr. John Wills.

Master Jostab Conder, aged 12, of Mess. Palmer's school, Hackney. Miss E. R. Dent, aged 12, daughter of Mrs. Elizabeth Dent, of Northampton.

Miss M. T. Dent, aged 10, ditto. Miss Elizabeth Ewart, aged 13.

Master Joseph Ewens, aged 13 and a half, of Mr. W. Paull's academy, Castlecary.

Matter George Edwards, aget 14 and 5 months, pupil of Mr. Barnes's grammar school, Barnard Cattle.

Mils Mary Fuller, aged 14 and 9 months, pupil of Mrs. Elizabeth Dent, Northampton.

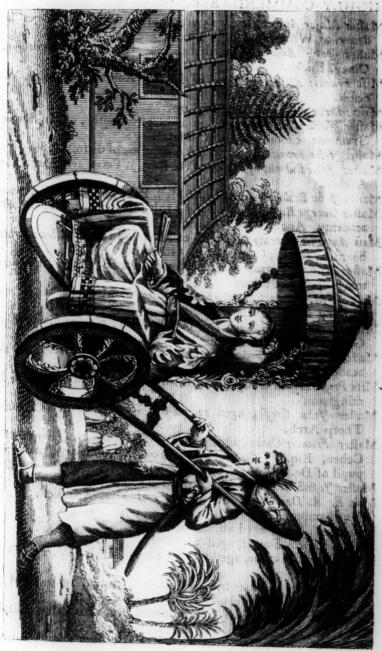
Mifs M. F. Ford, aged 14, of Mrs. Eve's Crescent school, Birming-

Master Joseph Fallowfield, aged 14 and 2 months, of the grammar school, Barnard Castle.

Matter Thomas Forster, aged 15 and 5 months, of dieto.

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Manners & Customs of Nations.



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Mafter Whit Mafter Mafter Palm Mis Ann Goode, aged 12 and nine months, pupil of Mrs. Dent. Northampton.

Master Edward Grinfield, aged 16, pupil to the Rev. John haw, of Briftol.

Miss Caroline Gem. aged 16 years, of Mrs. Eve's Crefent School, Birmingham.

Mafter John Gates, aged 16, of the Rev. Mr. Fallowfield's grammar school, Daventry.

Mafter Joseph Hobson, aged 15 years and 2 months, of Mr. Barnes's academy, Barnard Caftle.

Mafter Charles Hopkins, aged 13, Course of the Ditto.

Master John Herd, aged 14 years, and 2 months, - Ditto.

Mils Maria Hague. aged 13, and 8 months, of Mrs. Hagues's boarding school, Northampton.

Mafter H. W. Hentig, aged 14, private pupil, of the Rev. William Ashton, Hull Academy.

Mils Mariann Jones, aged 15, of Mils Roberts's school, Word cefter.

Ditto. Mils Sarab Kempfon, aged 14.

Matter Joseph Keep, aged 13, of Mr. Comfield's academy, Nor-The focustion ? thampton.

Mis Catharine Lethbridge, aged 15. daughter of Mrs. M. Lethas bridge, of Medford, near Launceston, Cornwall,

Mris Caroline Mall, aged 16, of Mrs. Eve's fchool, Birmingham. Mafter Richard Nanton, aged 16, of Meffes. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Mils M. A. Ormifton, aged 16, of Charlotte square, Newcastle upon?

Mil's Sarah Rand, aged II years and 8 months, of Bradford, Master S. Raban, aged 16, of Olney, Bucks. York fhire.

Mafter Richard Steele, aged 13 years, and 2 months, of Mr. Barties's

Master Jbn Smith, aged 14, of Mrs. Cox's academy, Northampton. Master William Shingleton, aged 15 years, and 9 months, of Mr.

Comfield's academy, Northampton. Mils R. S. Sutherland, aged 15, daughter of Mrs. Anne Sutherland, Woburn, Bedfordshire.

Mils A. Smith, aged 16, of Mrs. Eve's Crescent School, Birminghami.

Mils Elizabeth Steele, aged 13 years and 4 months, of Mr. Barnes's Grammar School, Barnard castle.

Master C. W. Thompson, aged 13, at the Rev. J. Peer's seminary, Thorp-Arch. The eghin to Miss MARKOA

Master William Toorpe, aged 12, of the Rev. G. Burges's academy, Whittlesea.

Matter H. K. White, aged 16, of Nottingham.

Master G. R. C Wilcocke, aged 13 years and 7 months, of Messrs. Palmer's academy, Hackney. Ff and hand war and a Mils Mils Margaret Watson, aged 14 years, and 9 months, of Mr. Barnes's Grammar school, Barnard cattle. Master John Wood, aged 12 years, and a half, Ditto. Master William Wood, aged 14 years, and 2 months, Ditto. Master George Watson, aged 12 years, and 9 months, Ditto. Mils Mary Ann Worthy, aged 12, pupil to Mrs. Lawrence, High-

CLASS II.

Franklinens the following are deferring of

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECOND SUBJECT.

TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master THOMAS STICKNEY, of Hull academy, aged 8. Attefted by all the maf-If and who we may and the plan the

To receive a Cabinet Library, value One Guinea and a Half.

The fecond to Mifs MARY ANN LOCOCK, of Mils Ramf. den's school, Hinkley, aged 11. Attested by Mr. Gepolin, French mafter.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Legacy to his Daughter.

The third to Miss ANNA COXE, of Hampstead Heath, aged 9 years 11 months. Attested by her Tutor, Dr. Montucci,

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The fourth to Mafter JOSEPH FENN, of Nieffis. Palmer's School, Hackney, aged 10. Attefted by Mr. Palmer.

To receive Goldsmith's History of England.

The fifth to Mafter PETER JECKELL. of Norwich, aged 11. Attefted by his father. I some the the hand and the state of the

· To receive Dr. Mavor's Lives of Phetarch abridged. The fixth to Mifs BRIDGET EYRE, of Reading, aged 11. Atteffed by Mr. Loriol, French master.

. To receive Evenings at Home. Vol. 1, 2, 3.

The seventh to Master WILLIAM PALMER, of Messes. Pal-To receive Dr. Mavar's British Nepos.

The eighth to Miss MARGARET TAYLOR, aged o. Atsefted by her aunt, Mrs. Hurry.

To receive Mifs Moore's Sacred Dramas. Mr. Joleph Parkke 12

Mafter J. Gregory, of Mesfrs. Palmer's school, whose attestation flates that he never received any instructions in French from a mai-

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ter, but was felf-taught, would have been entitled to a prize had be not been two months above 12 years, the specified age. Mafter Richard Isbell, Mas Juliana Hurth, and Miss Harriet Fenton, are also above age. In the attestations of Miss Ann Smith and Miss Webster, the age is not specified. Miss M. C. Flint, Miss Julia Hort, and Master Charles Dunbar, are excluded by having received lately first and second prizes.

Of the remaining Translations the following are deserving of COMMENDATION.

Master Perer Anshie, aced 11 years and a half, of the Rev. Mr. Bicheno's academy, Newbury

Mil's Bella Barrow, aged 12, No. 16 Devonshire square.

Matter Josiah Conder, aged 12, of Mess. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Mafter W. S. Colbert, aged 12, of Capel ffreet, Dublin.

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Miss Emma Coxe, aged 9 years, daughter of Mrs. Mary Coxe, of Hamitead-heath, and pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Mils Eliza Cox, aged 12, daughter of Mr. James Cox, of Gains-borough.

Master Charles Counten Clarke, aged 13, son of Mr. John Clarke, master of the Academy, Ensield.

Mil's Caroline Carter, aged 11, of Mrs. Wi liam's school, York. Mil's E. R. Dent, aged 12, daughter of Mrs. Elizabeth Dent, Northampton

Matter J. bn Eyre, aged 11 years and a half, of Mr. Clarke's, academy. Enfield.

Mils Ann Grob, aged 10 years and a half, daughter of Mrs. M. Grob, Kentish-town.

Master M. A. Goldsmid, aged 12, son of Asher Goldsmid Esq, and private pupil of Dr. Montucci.

Matter J. Gregory, aged 12, of Messirs. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Miss J. S. Green, aged 11, daughter of Mr. Jane Green, of Durham, and private pupil of Mr. James Bois Baron.

Matter Samuel Hinde, aged 12, of Mr. Fieldfend's academy, Altercliffe.

Mils Mary Lloyd, aged 12, daughter of Mrs. Eliza Lloyd, of Peterley House, near Great Miffenden.

Mils Sofbia Mallough, aged 12, daughter of Edward Joseph Mallough, Esq. of eckham.

Mils Ann Cooper Marsh, aged 9 years and 4 months, of Mrs Eves's Crefent school, Birmingham.

Mils Mary Pattison, aged 11 years and a half, of Stonehouse, near Plymouth.

Miss Louisa Elizabeth Parkburst, aged 12, daughter of J. G. Park-hurst, Esq. or Hutton Lodge, near Malton.

Miss Clomentia Parker, aged 11, daughter of Mr. Joseph Parker, of Nottingham.

Mils Eliza Peacock, aged 8 years and 2 months, of Mrs. Williams's school, York.

Maffer

Mafter John Sturgey aged 12, of Meffrs, Palmer's academy, Hack

Miss Gentrude Stephens, aged 12, private pupil to Mr. Dufrezney, of Plymouth Dock.

Mils Sarah Stolworthy, aged 11, of No. 18, Kirby flreet, London. Miss Anne Vowell, of New King-street, Bath, pupil of Mr. G. R.

NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. XIII.

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EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT THE STATE COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR.

What are the principle advantages to be derived from the Study of the Greek and Latin Claifics?

The best pager to entire the writer to books value two guineas; the fecond best to a filver medal, value half a-guinea; and the eight next beit Answers to be returned before the 18th of February.

CLASS II.

TRANSLATION FROM THE FRENCH.

FOR YOUNG LADIES WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR FOURRTEENTH YEAR.

A Translation of OGER LE DANOIS.

Oger, fils de Geoffroi, roi de Danemarck, fut un des plus braves guerriers du siècle de Charlemagne. Il avait appris le métier des armes sous le duc Name de Bavière, ayant suivi ce prince en Italie, lorsque Charlemagne, avec une puissante armée, courait au secours de Rome, menacée par les Sarrazins. Dès la première bataille à laquelle il se trouva, il y fit des prodiges de valeur, tels qu'on aurait pu les attendre du chevalier le plus courageux et le plus expérimente. Les Sarrazins avaient enlevé aux chrettens leur grand oriflamme, cette bannière sacrée à laquelle îls portaient une vénération si particulière. Oger, rempli du plus noble zèle, et d'une intrépidité rare, le précipite au milieux d'eux et la leur reprend : mais non content de cet exploit,

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exploit, il s'avance avec audace au plus épais de leurs rangs, et vient à bout d'enlever aux ennemis eux-mêmes l'étendard de Mahomet. Ces sublimes preuves de force et de valeur lui procurèrent de la part de l'empereur et de toute l'armée des éloges et des honneurs au-dessus de toute difrinction.

Il y avait au camp un fils de l'empereur, qui se nommait Charles; il était du même âge qu'Oger, et son compagnon d'armes; mais à la haffesse et à l'abjection de ses sentimens, ce prince unissait un esprit envieux et mechant. La gloire d'Oger, loin de lui inspirer une généreule émulation, ne fit que l'animer contre lui d'une haine implacable. Ce ne fut point l'effet d'une impression momentanée et passagère; au contraire, plus la réputation d'Oger croissait, et elle s'étendait chaque jour avec le plus grand éclat par de nouvelles actions héroiques, au point que peu à peu, non seulement toute la France, mais l'Europe entière en retentit) plus auffi se fortifiaient la jalousie et la méchanceté. de son lâche rival. Le cruel employa toutes sortes de moyens pour le perdre, tantôt en lui tendant des embuches en secret, tantôt en disposant de lui dans les batailles, de manière qu'il était expoté aux plus grand dangers; mais Oger, supérieur à tous les hafards, en sortit toujours victorieux. Il était père d'un enfant de la plus belle elpérance, auquel on avait donné le nom de Baudoin. Elevé dans sa jeunesse à la cour de Danemarck, aussi-tôt qu'Oger préluma qu'il était temps de le produire, il le fit venir à Paris auprès de lui, afin de le former lui-même au grand art de la guerre. Le jeune héros, doné de tous les talens, y fit en peu de temps des progrès merveilleux. Il se montra, par ion courage, sa force, son adresse, son intelligence, digne d'un père auffi grand que le sien. Charles, toujours le même, fit retomber fur le fils cette haine atroce qu'il nourrissait depuis si long-temps contre Oger; et pour afsouvir d'un même trait sa rage sur l'un et sur l'autre, un jour que Baudoin, qu'il avait lâchement insulté, eut la fermeté de lui répondre avec franchife, le brutal tirant son épée comme un furieux sans lui donner le temps de le mettre en defenfe, la lui paffa au travers du corps

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Dès que la nouvelle en fut portée au malheureux père, au premier abord il resta stupésait et immobile; mais ensuite la plus terrible fureur succédant à son abattement, il courut en sorcené dans tous les endroits de la cour à la poursuite de Charles avec l'intention de se venger. Celui-ci s'était refugié aupres de l'empereur. Oger sachant sa retraite entre surieux, l'épée nue; ses yeux jetaient des slammes, ils respi-

raient

raient la mort. Le lâche affa sin, épouvanté, tremblant, se cache derrière l'empereur; Oger n'écoutait que l'impétuosité de sa colère. " Je te trouve ensin, scélérat, lui crietil; desends-toi, si tu en es capable." En disant ces mots, il se précipite sur lui. En vain l'empereur se jette audevant de ses coups; sans les chevaliers et les gardes qui l'entouraient le traître était perdu; mais il parvinrent à le sauver.

Parmi les premiers, était le duc de Name, qu'Oger avait toujours respecté comme un père. Ce paladin l'ayant entraîné hors de la falle, lui fit comprendre l'excès d'imprudenée ou sa fureur l'avait conduit, et le détermina à sortir, Cependant il interposa, de concert avec tous les pairs, ses bons offices et ses prières pour obtenir de l'empereur son pardon. Mais ce prince était trop irrité pour y consentir; et fans doute l'injure qu'Oger avait faite à la dignité imperiale, en attaquant à main armée un fils de l'empereur au milieu de son appartement et sous ses yeux, était très-grave. Il n'y avait que les circonstances qui l'avaient excité à ce transport, qui fussent capables de l'excuser. Mais Charlemagne n'avait d'egard que pour les droits de sa dignité qui était outragée. Exile de la cour et de la France, Oger fut donc obligé d'errer long-temps dans diverses contrées, et d'occuper pendant ce temps ion courage en faveur de differens états, jusqu'à ce qu'enfin l'empereur lui-même se

vit obligé malgré lui à le rappeler.

Les Sarrazins, fous le commandement de Bruyer, avaient repris les armes, et, descendus en Provence, victorieux partout, ils s'étaient avancés jusqu'à Paris. Renfermé dans sa capitale affiegée, l'empereur y avait raffemblé toutes ses forces; mais dans ce moment, privé des plus braves de ses paladins, il avait bien de la peine à foutenir avec elles les attaques de ses ennemis. Par hafard, Bruyer rempli de confiance en ses propres forces, et jaloux de presser la victoire, proposa de terminer la guerre par un duel. Oger était alors en Angleterre. Chacun sentait bien qu'il était le seul capable de tenir la balance, et de fair face à un si terrible enncmi. La cour et l'armée aspiraient après son retour. De tous côtés, on pressait l'empereur de le rappeler. La nécelfité plus que tout autre motif, l'obligea d'y consentir. Oger accepta l'invitation, mais fous la promesse que s'il était vainqueur, on lui accorderait Charles comme prisonnier. L'empereur se souleva contre cette proposition, et refusa d'y adhérer. Il offrit tout ce qu'on voudrait en échange, mais Oger demeuta inflexible; et contraint par le besoin urgent, Charlemagne fut à la fin force de se soumettre.

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Le guerrier invincible arrive, et le troisième jour qui suivit son retour sut assigné pour le combat. La lice s'ouvre dès le grand matin : les deux braves adversaires y entrent, et chacune des armées, rangée du côté de son parti, reste simple spectatrice du différend. Bruyer était d'une taille démesurée, et d'une force épouvantable. Oger le surpassiait en adresse et dans l'art de manier les armes. Le premier choc sut terrible : les lances volèrent en mille pièces; mais les cavaliers se tinrent fermes sur les arcons. Alors ils mirent l'un et l'autre l'épée à la main, et commencèrent à faire pleuvoir mutuellement sur leurs corps une grêle des

coups les plus furieux.

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Dèjà l'un et l'autre avaient brisé en plusiers endroits les pièces de leur armure; déjà le sang coulait également des différentes parties de leurs corps. Cependant jusques-la l'avantage était du côté d'Oger. Le roi d'Afrique, transporté de sureur, et impatient de terminer le combat, jette son écu, presse le paladin avec impétuosité, et, rassemblant toutes ses sorcess, lui porte à deux mains le coup le plus violent. Il fallut toute l'agilité du Danois pour l'éviter. Celui-ci saute légèrement de côté, et ensonce dans les sanc désarmé de Bruyer son épée jusqu'au plus prosond de ses entrailles. Le géant african tombe à ce coup. Un cri d'horreur et de déserpoir s'élance de l'armée des Sarrazins; des acclamations de joie d'alégresse retentissent dans le camp des chrétiens. On reconduitit, en triomphe, Oger sous le pavillon de l'empereur.

Après y avoir recu les applaudissemens et les éloges de toute l'armée, il réclame l'execution de la promesse qu'on lui a faite. Charlemagne pâlit; il redoutait les essets de la colère et de la vengeance d'Oger, mais l'engagement était trop solennel; il n'y avait pas moyen de s'y soustraire.

Le cruel affaffin du fils d'Oger, désarmé, pâle, tremblant, fut amené devant lui. Voici l'instant, lui dit le guerrier avec un regard épouvantable, où tu dois subir la peine de ta barbare trahison. Aussi-tôt le saississant de la main gauche par ses cheveux, il lève de la droite son épée, prêt à la lui plonger dans le sein. L'empereur pousse un cri d'essroi, les assissants sont saissis d'horreur; le prisonnier tombe à demi-mort de peur. Alors Oger jetant aux pieds de Charlemagne son épée, se prosterna devant lui: Tu peux sentir en ce moment, sire, lui dit-it, combien est sensible à un père la mort d'un fils assassiné. Reprends ton sils, je te le rends. Que ne peut-il de même, le cruel, me rendre le mien!....' A ce spectacle toute l'assemblée resta

muette d'étonnement. On trensporta Charles d'un autre côté. L'empereur passa de l'épouvante à l'attendrissement, et, les larmes aux yeux, il serra dans ses bras le généreux Oger. Tous les chevaliers firent cercle autour d'eux, et exaltèrent avec une égale acclamation, sa générosité et sa valeur. Cependant l'indigne fils de Charlemagne ne resta pas pour cela sans punition. Enseveli dans son avilissement, et couvert d'opprobre, il termina peu de temps après sa misérable carière.

The best translation to entitle the writer to books value one guinea and a half; the second best to a book value half-a-guinea; and the ten next best to books value five shillings each.

The translations to be received before the 18th February.

CLASS III.

FOR YOUNG PERSONS NOT EXCEEDING SIXTEEN YEARS.

It is required to delineate a near map, or plan of the vicinity of the school or paternal residence of the young candidate, according to estimated distances; with the pearings deduced from observations with a compass or theodolite, to extend in each direction two or three miles, and to be drawn on paper not exceeding one foot square.

The plans to be received on or before the 5th day of March next. .

That which is executed in the most tasteful and correct menner will be entitled to an achromatic telescope on a brass stand, value three guineas and a half; the second best to a case of mathematical instruments, value one guinea; and the ten next best to books value sive shillings each.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

An original Tale, with which we have been favoured by Miss Edgeworth, will appear in our next number.

The Adjudication of the Mathematical Prizes of our present number will also be given in the next.

By a militake of the Compositor the Extract from PLINY'S REISTLES, proposed in our last Number to be translated, was limited to the age of 13. On the contrary the Editors wished it to be proposed as an Exercise for YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN. WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR. In consequence of this mistake they have agreed to enlarge the time for the translation only (not for the theme) to the 15th inst. January.

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Natural and Experimental Philosophy.

LECTURE XII. Manual 1

OF LIGHT.

IN confidering the nature of light, a difficulty presents itfelf fimilar to that which occurred with respect to the electrical fluid. Some philosophers have been disposed to confider the matter of light as effentially different from elementary fire, while others have regarded them as intrinsically the same matter, only exhibited in different states. A late writer on these subjects determines that light is diluted fire, that is, fire weakened and diffused, as spirits when mingled) with water; and another terms it fire in a projectile Rates that is, its particles are feparately projected, and, in truth, of an immense distance from each other, whereas in culinary fire it is collected and condensed. It is a circumstance which not a little favours this latter opinion, that light may be collected and condensed by what is called a burning-glass, lo as to burn like the fiercest flame. On the contrary, flame itself may be so diluted or diffused as to be perfectly innoxious. "The flame," fays Dr. Goldsmith, " which hangs over burning spirit of wine, we all know to scorch with great power; yet their flames may be made to fhine as bright as ever, yet be perfectly harmless. This is done by placing them over a gentle fire, and leaving them thus to evaporate in a close room without a chimney: if a person a should foon after enter with a candle, he will find the whole room filled with innoxious flames. The parts have been too Vot. II. Gg minutely

minutely separated, and the fluid, perhaps, has not force enough to fend forth its burning rays with fufficient effect."

It is not, however, the intention of these lectures to involve you in the intricacies of theory, or to pursue speculative inquiries at the expence of uleful facts. It will be more profitable to detail and explain the properties of light than to waste our time in conjectures on its essence. The most remarkable properties of light, then, are, first, its velocity; fecondly, its rarry; thirdly, its force or momentum; fourthly, the property of being always detached in fraight lines; fifthly, refraction; and, fixthly, the reflexion of light.

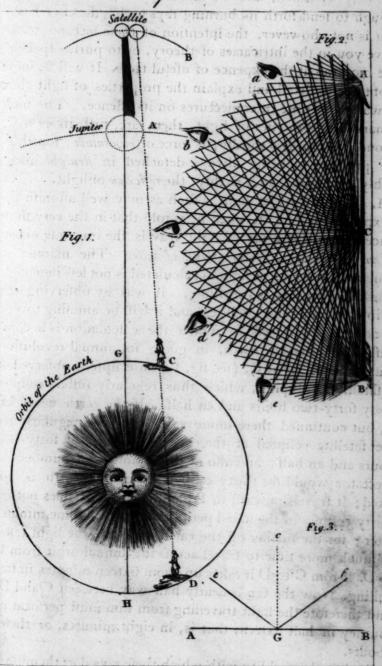
1. The velocity of light is fuch as may well aftonish the inexperienced student, when he is told that in the very short space of a moment a ray of light travels the immense extent of one bundred and feverty theufand miles. The manner in which the velocity of light is calculated is not less ingenious than the discovery is surprising. It was by observing the ecliples of Jupiter's fatellites, and it will be amuting to you to observe the process by which the calculation is accomphished. When the earth, in going its annual revolution round the fun, is at C, (fee fig. 1.) an eclipfe is observed of a fatellite of Jupiter, which thus regularly fuffers ecliples every forty-two hours and an half. If the earth never left C, but continued there immoveable, it would regularly fee the fatellite eclipfed at the expected interval of forty-two hours and an Half; and also at thirty times that number the spectator would fee thirty eclipses. But the earth is not fixed; it travels onward to D, and a spectator does not see thirty eclipses in the stated period, and not till some minutes after; for the further off the earth removes, the light takes so much more time to travel across the annual orbit from C to D. From C to D it takes up about fixteen minutes in travelling. Now the fun is nearly half-way between C and D, and therefore the light travelling from him must perform its journey in half fixteen, that is, in eight minutes, or thereabouts.

Such is the rapidity with which these rays dart themselves forward, that a journey, they perform thus in less than eight minutes, a ball from the mouth of a cannon would not come parts have been too

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forward, that a jaamey, they perform thus most than it is minutes, a ball from the mouth of a cannon would can out

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the mu cor plete in several weeks. But here it may be said, if the velocity of the light is fo very great, how is it that it does not strike against objects with a force equal to its swiftness? If the finest sand, the objector may continue to observe, was thrown against our bodies with the hundredth part of this velocity, each grain would be as fatal as the ftab of a ftiletto: how then is it, that we expose, without pain, not only other parts of our bodies to the incursions of light, but our eyes, which are a part to exquifitely fenfible of every impreffion? To answer this objection, experiment will inform us, that the minuteness of the parts of light are Itill several degrees beyond their velocity; and they are therefore harmlets, because so very small. A ray of light is nothing more than a constant stream of minute parts kill flowing from the luminary, fo inconceivably little, that a candle, in a fingle second of time, has been faid to diffuse several hundreds of millions more particles of light, than there could be grains in the whole earth, if it was entirely one heap of fand. The fun furnishes them, and the stars allo, without appearing in the least to confume, by granting us the supply. Musk, while it diffuses its odour, wastes as it perfumes us; but the fun's light is diffused in a wide sphere, and feems inexhauftible.

That the motion of light is inexpressibly rapid you may easily convince yourselves, by only giving attention to the firing of a cannon at a considerable distance, and observing the time that elapses between your seeing the flash and hearing the found. It has been calculated by some very accurate experiments that sound travels at the rate of one thousand one hundred and forty-two seet, or three hundred and eighty yards in a moment or second of time; and if you remark, as was before observed, the time which intervenes between your seeing the flash and hearing the noise of the cannon, you will soon perceive how infinitely more rapid light must be in its motions than found.

II. It is a principle in mechanics, that the force with which all moving bodies strike is in proportion to the fize of these bodies, or the quantity of matter which they contain multiplied by the velocity with which they move. Now if we consider the amazing velocity of light, it is evident, that if

the separate particles of it were not infinitely finaller than we can conceive, they would be destructive in the highest degree. To illustrate this by a plain example; a few grains of thot, fired out of a musket or fowling-piece, will deprive a large animal or even a man of life. How is this? If the shot was thrown by the hand it would hurt neither the man nor the animal. It is the velocity, the swiftness, with which it is impelled by the force of the powder, that enables it to penetrate folid fubstances. Now it has been demonstrated that light moves at the aftonishing rate of two millions of times fafter than a cannon-ball; and confequently if the particles of light were only equal in fize to the two millioneth part of a grain of fand, we should be no more able to stand their force than we should that of fand shot point blank from the mouth of a cannon. How infinitely small must these then be, when it is more than probable they are not equal to half that fize, that is, not equal to the four millioneth part of a grain of fand! What an idea does this give us of the works of our infinite Creator, and how little must we seem in our own eyes! O, philosophy, it is thou alone that can teach mankind humility!

But we have other proofs not less decisive than this of the extreme minuteness of the particles of light. When we observe with what facility they penetrate the hardest bodies, glass, crystal, precious stones, and even the diamond itself, through all which they find an easy passage, or those bodies could not be transparent, how extremely small must these particles be? When a candle is lighted, if there is no obstacle to obstruct its rays, it will fill a space of two miles round with luminous particles in an instant of time, and before the least sensible part of the substance is lost by the luminous body. Nay, how small must the particles of light be, when they pass without removing the minutest particles of microscopic dust that lie in their way, and even these minute particles are rendered visible, by restering back the particles of light that strike against them?

Small as the particles of light are, it is no less surprising to find that though diffused through all space, they are separated from each other at the distance of at least a thousand miles. This is a matter of calculation, and the proof

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is as follows: It is a very clear fact, that the effect of light upon our eyes is not instantaneous, but that the impression remains for some time. You may easily fatisfy yourfelves of this, by fautting your eyes after having looked for fome time on a candle, a star, or any other luminous body, when you will perceive that a faint picture will remain of the object for tome time. The smallest division of time, then, that we can well conceive, will be the one hundred and fiftieth part of a second. If, therefore, one lucid part of the fun's furface emits one hundred and fifty particles of light in a second of time, we may conceive that these will be amply fufficient to afford light to the eye without any intermittion. You will remember, then, that light travels at the rate of about one hundred and feventy thoufand miles in a second, so that the fun, emitting one hundred and fifty particles in that space of time, each particle must be more than one thousand miles distant from the other. Indeed it is reasonable to suppose that they must. be at great diffances afunder, or they could not pals to continually as they do in all directions, without interfering with each other. Possibly the degree of splendour with which different objects of fight may appear, will be found to depend upon the number or quantity of luminous particles emitted or reflected from them; but if we even funpole three hundred particles of light emitted from any lucid. point in a fecond, fill these particles will be more than five hundred miles dittant from each other. 1 1, 2, 200001

If, in fact, light was not thus thinly diffused, it must be extremely injurious to our organs, fince we find that when it is condensed or compressed, as in the focus of a burningglass, there is no substance that can withstand its force. Gold, when exposed to its influence, is instantly melted, and even the diamond itself, which resists a very intense chemical heat, is fuddenly diffolved. To firew, however, still more decisively, that the rays or particles are naturally in this extremely rare or diffused state, or in other words, follow each other at an immense distance it is a well-known fact that the rays of light, even when collected in the focus of the strongest burning-glass, will not inflame spirit of wine, or any other combustible matter, while they G g.3:

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merely pass through it. To make you comprehend this fact more clearly, I must observe, that whatever light passes through is called a medium, and those substances which do not reflect the rays, but which may be feen through, are called transparent; those on the contrary, which intercept or reflect the rays, are called opake. Now a phial bottle in which spirit of wine is contained, is a transparent medium, and in that state the spirit will not be set on fire; if, on the other hand, the spirit is poured forth into a spoon, or any opake vessel, which, in fact, intercepts the rays of light, ftops them in their progress, and thus collects them in a mass, it will immediately be inflamed. This, I think, proves to demonstration that the particles of light must follow each other at a great distance, and that they must be in the first place compressed together by the force of the burning-glass, and then stopped and condensed by an opake body, to enable them to produce a confiderable degree of heat.

That light may be exceedingly diluted, as well as condensed, we may easily perceive; for the light of the glowworm, of rotten wood, and of what are called the folar phosphori, can never be condensed by any burning-glass, so as to produce the slightest degree of heat. The experiment has also been made with the light of the moon, and that has been found too saint and rare to be condensed into a burn-

ing focus.

The principle upon which the rays of light are collected in the focus of a burning-glass will be explained hereaster, when we treat of lenses, and of mirrors. But I do not wish to pass over any thing that I mention, without an attempt to render it clear to your comprehension. I mentioned the folar phosphori, of which it is probable that very sew of you have heard before. They are certain substances which, when exposed for a little time to the strong rays of the sun, are found to imbibe a large quantity of light, so that they will shine or appear luminous, if immediately carried into a dark place. The most remarkable of these is the Bolognian phosphorus. It was accidentally discovered by a shocmaker of Bologna. This man had collected together some stones of a shining appearance at the bottom of Mount Peterus.

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terus, and being in quest of some chemical secret, (probably the philosopher's stone, which was to turn every thing into gold) he put them into a crucible to calcine them, or reduce them to the state of a cinder. Having taken them out of the crucible, they were exposed to the light while he was examining them, and afterwards he happened to carry them into a dark place, probably to throw them away, when, to his utter furprize, he observed that they possessed a felf-illuminating power. Baldwin, of Misnia, another chemift, observed some time after, that chalk, dissolved in aqua fortis (after the aqua fortis had been evaporated by heat, and the matter reduced to a perfectly dry state), exactly refembled the Bolognian stone in its property of imbibing light, and emitting it after it was brought into the dark, whence it has been termed Baldwin's phosphorus. In truth, the same effect may be produced from calcined oyster fhells, and from all the varieties of that mineral called ponderous spar, of which the Bolognian phosphorus is a species. Diamonds also, and some emeralds, and other precious stones, will emit light when carried out of a light into a dark place. The light emitted by these phosphori, always bears an analogy to that which they have imbibed. In general it is reddiff; but when a weak light only has been admitted to them, or when it has been received through white paper, the light which they give out is pale or whitish.

III. Notwithstanding the rarity of light, however, and the smallness of its particles, it is not destitute of force or momentum. To prove this, a most ingenious experiment was made by the late Mr. Mitchell. He constructed a small vane in the form of a common weathercock, of a very thin plate of copper, about an inch square, and attached to one of the finest harpsichord wires, about ten inches long, and nicely balanced at the other end of the wire by a grain of wery small shot. The vane was supported in the manner of the needle in the common mariner's compass, so that it could turn with the greatest ease; and to prevent its being affected by the vibrations of the air, it was inclosed in a glass case, or box. The rays of the sun were thrown upon the broad part of the vane, or copper plate, by a hurning glass,

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glass of two feet diameter, in confequence of which it was observed to move regularly at the rate of about one inch in a fecond of time. Upon this experiment a very curious calculation is founded. The instrument or vane weighed about ten grains, and the velocity with which it moved was at the rate of one inch in a fecond. The quantity of matter therefore contained in the rays of light which struck against the vane in that time amounted to about the twelve hundred millionth part of a grain: the velocity of light exceeding the velocity of the instrument in about that proportion. The light in this experiment was collected from a furface of about three fquare feet, and as it was from a concave minor,* only half the quantity was reflected. The quantity of light therefore incident upon a square foot and half of furface, is no more than one twelve hundred millioneth part of a grain. But the denfity of the rays of light at the furface of the fun is greater than at the earth, in the proportion of forty-five thousand to one. From one square foot of the fun's furface, therefore, there ought to iffue in the space of one second, one forty thousandth part of a grain of light to supply the confumption. More than two grains a day therefore is expended from the fun's furtace, or fix hundred and feventy pounds in fix thousand years, which would have shortened his diameter about ten feet, if it was formed of matter of the density of water only. From all this you. will conclude that I adopt the common theory, that the funis the great source of light; and if his diameter is rightly calculated (of which there can be no doubt) at eight hundred and feventy-eight thousand eight hundred and eight miles, we see there is no ground for any apprehensions that the sun will speedily be exhausted by the waste or consumption of light apply gubrotte in seven

IV. Another principle to which I proposed to call your attention is, that light always moves in straight lines. This is evident from an experiment which any person may easily make, viz that of looking through a bent tube, when no light whatever will be apparent. As a further proof it is only necessary to mention, that when light is intercepted by any intervening body, the shadow is bounded by straight lines.

Mirrors or woking-glasses restect only half the light that falls on them-

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It is generally supposed, according to this principle, that those bodies only are transparent whose pores are such as to permit the rays of light to pervade them in a rectilinear direction; and they act like a straight tube, which allows them a free paffage; and those bodies are opake whose pores are not straight, and which therefore intercept the rays, like the bent tube already mentioned, and the state of restaura

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If the rays of light proceed in straight lines, it is obvious that they must be fent from every visible object in all directions. It is however only by those rays, which enter the pupil of our eye, that they are rendered visible to us; but, being fent in all directions, it is evident that some rays from every part must reach the eye. Thus the object ABC (fig. 2.) is rendered visible to an eye in any part, where the rays Aa, Ab, Ac, Ad, Ae, Ba, Bb, Bc, Bd, Be, Ca, Cb, Cc, Cd, Ce, can come; and these affect our sight with the sense of different colours and shades, according to the properties of the body from which the light is reflected, as will be explained when we come to treat of colours.

Of the refraction and reflexion of light I shall hereafter treat more at large; but, in the mean time, it will greatly facilitate the study of optics, if you will carefully peruse, and still more if you will commit to memory, the following principles and definitions: they are extracted from the Economy of Nature.

in the formal and thus me to 1. Light is a matter, the particles of which are extremely small, which by striking on our visual organs, gives us the fensation of feeing.

2. The particles of light are emitted from what are called luminous bodies, such as the sun, a fire, a torch, or candle, &c. &c. it is reflected or fent back by what are termed opake bodies, or those which have no power of affording light in themselves.

3. Light, whether emitted or reflected, always moves in braight or direct lines, as may easily be proved by looking into bent tube, which evidently obstructs the progress of the ight in direct lines.

4. By a ray of light is usually meant the least paricle of light that can be either intercepted or separated om the reft. A beam of light is generally used to express

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fomething of an aggregate or mals of light greater than a

5. Parallel rays are fuch as prooeed equally diffant from each other through their whole course. The diftance of the fun from the earth is so immense, that rays proceeding from the body of that luminary are generally regarded as parallel.

6. Converging rays are such as, proceeding from any body, approach nearer and nearer to each other, and tend to unite in a point. The form of rays thus tending to a union in a fingle point has been compared to that of a candle extinguither; it is in fact a perfect cone.

7. Diverging rays are those which, proceeding from a point, continue to recede from each other, and exhibit the

form of an inverted cone.

8. A fmall object, or a fmall fingle point of an object, from which rays of light diverge or indeed proceed in any direction, is fometimes called the radiant, or radiant point.

9. Any parcel of rays, diverging from a point, confidered

as separate from the rest, is called a pencil of rays.

10. The focus of rays is that point to which converging rays tend, and in which they unite and interfect or crois each other. It may be considered as the apex or point of the cone; and it is called the focus (or fire place), because it is the point at which burning-glaffes burn most intensely.

11. The virtual or imaginary focus is that supposed point behind a mirror or looking-glass, where the rays would have naturally united, had they not been intercepted by

the mirror.

12. Plane mirrors or speculums are those reflecting bodies the furfaces of which are perfectly plain or even, fuch a our common looking-glaffes. Convex and concave mirrors and those the surfaces of which are curved.

13. An incident ray is that which comes from any body to the reflecting furface; the reflected ray is that which is fen

back or reflected.

14. The angle of incidence is the angle which is formed by the line which the incident ray describes in its progress, an a line drawn perpendicularly to the reflecting furface; and the angle of reflection is the angle formed by the same perpendill, then dicular and the reflected ray. Thus in fig. 3. AB is the re

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flecting surface, CG is a line drawn perpendicularly to that furface, e is a ray of light incident at G, and reflected to f; and the angle GCe is evidently equal to the angle GC f.3

15. By a medium opticians mean any thing which is transparent, fuch as void space, air, water, or glass, through which confequently the rays of light can pass in straight lines.

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16. The refraction of the rays of light is their being bent, or attracted out of their course in passing obliquely from one medium to another of a different denfity, and which causes objects to appear broken or distorted when part of them is seen in a different medium. It is from this property of light that a stick or an oar, which is partly immersed in water, appears broken. fun gials, which had the

17. A lens is a transparent body of a different density from the furrounding medium, commonly of glass, and asked by opticians to collect or disperse the rays of light. They are in general either convex, that is, thicker in the middle than at the edges, which collect and, by the force of refraction, converge the rays, and confequently magnify; or concave, that is, thinner in the middle than at the edges, which, by the refraction, disperse the rays of light, and dimish the objects that are seen through them:

18. Vision is performed by a contrivance of this kind. The cryffalline humour, which is seated in the fore part of fely. the human eye, immediately behind the pupil, is a perfect point convex lens. As therefore every object is rendered visible rould by beams or pencils of light which proceed or diverge from d by every radiant point of the object, the crystalline lens collects all these divergent rays, and causes them to converge on the odies, back part of the eye, where the retina or optic nerve is such as pread out; and the points where each pencil of rays is ors are made to converge on the retina, are exactly correspondent o the points of the object from which they proceed. As body lowever, from the great degree of convergence which this is few contrivance will produce, the pencils of light proceeding tom the extreme points of the object will be made to cross and by ach other before they reach the retina, the image on the fis, and ctina is always inverted.

e; and 19. The magnitude of the image painted on the retina

perpendill, therefore, it is evident, depend on the greatness or ob-I bus in by 3. AB is the also and the reflected ray tuseness of the angle under which the rays proceeding from the extreme points of the object enter the eye. For it is plain, that the more open or obtuse the angle is, the greater is the tendency of these rays to meet in a point and cross each other: and the sooner they cross each other, after passing the crystalline lens, the larger will be the inverted image painted on the retina. The visual angle, therefore, is that which is made by two right lines drawn from the extreme points of any object to the eye; and on the measure of that angle the apparent magnitude of every visible object will depend.

. 20. The prism used by opticians is a triangular piece of fine glass, which has the power of separating the rays of light.

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NATURAL HISTORY.

the opnoinus to collect or different the rays of light.

INSECTS CONTINUED.

ORDER I. THE FOURTH GENUS.—PTINUS.

THIS genus is characterized by its filiform antennæ, the extreme articulations of which are longer than those nearer the animal. The thorax is without a margin, rounded, and affords a receptacle for the head, into which the infect frequently draws it. Linnæus has enumerated fix different species. They attack household furniture, cloths, sure, and particularly dried animals in a state of preservation. Some of them, when caught, have the artistice to counterfeit death: they draw in the head and limbs, and remain till the danger is over in a state of inaction, from which nothing but the application of heat can rouse them.

The ptinus pectinicornis is the first species enumerated in the system of nature; it is produced from a small worm that lodges in the rotten parts of the bark of trees, where it makes a deep hole. The worm is there transformed into a winged insect, which has obtained its name from the form

of the antennæ, being pectinated on one fide.

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Genus V.-Hister

There are fix species enumerated under this genus, all varying in size, but uniformly of a dark colour. The larvæ, as well as the winged insects of this genus, reside most frequently in the dung of horses and cows, and often upon sand. The general characters in which they all resemble each other, are drawn from the shape of the antennæ; the last articulation of which is larger than the others, and terminates in a solid knob; while the first articulation is compressed and incurvated.

The hister unicolor is one of the most beautiful infects belonging to this tribe: the body is black, polished, and brilliant.

GENUS VI.-GERINUS.

There are only two species belonging to this family of insects, the natator and the americanus; both easily distinguished by their form as well as their manners. The antennæ are clavated, stiff, and shorter than the head; the hinder legs are also short, flat, and very broad. These animals are said to have four eyes, two on the upper and two on the under side of the head; they appear, in sact, on both sides of the head, but their number is only two.

The gerinus natator has an English name, being known in this country by that of the water-flea. It is that small animal which is seen describing circles on the surface of the water, by running on it with great swiftness. When an attempt is made to take it, it planges below and eludes the grasp.

The colour of the water-flea is a resplendent black, with a shade of brown.

GENUS VII.-BYRRHUS.

This tribe, when in its larva state, resembles the worms of the dermestes; like them also they are extremely voracious, and are but too well known to those who are employed in collecting the subjects of natural history. Their antennæ, when they arrive at the winged state, are clavated, terminating in a capitulum or knob of a solid substance and oval shape.

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GENUS VIII .- SYLPHA.

The infects belonging to this class are very voracious of carrion, upon which they deposit their eggs in vast numbers. Thirty-five different species of this fertile race have already been discovered; and it is probable that many have hitherto escaped all notice from naturalists. The antennæ grow gradually thick towards their extremities; the elytra are marginated; the head is prominent; and the thorax flattened, and surrounded with a border.

GENUS IX .- CASSIDA.

The casside that are sound in Britain have, in their larva state, two prongs projecting from the extremity of the abdomen, of which they form a kind of umbrella of their own excrements, to shelter them from the sun and rain. When the umbrella becomes unfit for that purpose, it exchanges it for another, which is sabricated of the same materials. These infects, which in their larva state are distinguished by manners as disgusting as those of the Hottentots, are afterwards transformed into the most elegant of the beetle tribe. Before they undergo their last change they cast their skins several times; their food all the while being different kinds of thistles and verticillated plants.

There are thirty-one of the cassidæ species already described; of these the green oval shaped cassida is the most

remarkable for its beauty.

GENUS X .- COCCINELLA.

The coccinellæ are the most brilliant insects of this order; some scarlet, others yellow, pale green; and these splendid

colours are finely variegated with spots.

When the females of this tribe have been impregnated, they deposit their eggs upon the leaves of trees; and thence are produced larvæ that are great devourers of plant lice. Their chrysalid state continues for about a fortnight, when they are seen attached to a leaf by the hinder part, their bodies bent and swollen. Their wings, after bursting the covering, soon become hard, and change from their pale colour to the red or scarlet, according to the particular spe-

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cies. These insects are hardly ever capable of slight; their motions appear rather like jumping than slying.

The lady-bird of the English is a beautiful species belonging to the tribe of coccinellæ.

GENUS XI.—CHRYSOMELA.

From the variety of different colours with which the infects of this tribe are adorned, they have been called chryfomela. There are no less than an hundred and twenty-two different species described by naturalists, distinguishable by their size, colour, and manners. They all agree, however, in having the antennæ monilisorm, and increasing in thickness towards the ends.

The chrysomelæ are to be found almost every where; some frequent the open sields, others the woods, and many the gardens. Their larva prey upon the leaves of trees, rejecting the sibrous parts; some of them destroy the grass while in that state; and there is in Sweden a particular species, said to be guilty of very extensive depredations on the pasture grounds. This insect, when it has reached its winged state is of a fine glossy green, mixed with a shade of blue; the whole disseminated with a number of simall spots, which form irregular striæ.

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GENUS XII.-HISPA.

Only two species of these insects are found in Europe; two others are enumerated by Linnæus, which are not indigenous in this quarter of the globe. The thorax and elytra* of this tribe form their most distinguishing character; both being covered with protuberances like spines.

GENUS XIII .- BRUCHUS.

This family of infects is superior in fize to the last, and more divertified: it contains seven species, having club-formed antennæ.

The bruchus of the pea bloffom frequents that flower; is covered with ash-coloured down, forming cloudy spots upon the thorax and elytra; the latter are so short that they leave a great part of the abdomen exposed, and thickly covered with longitudinal streaks.

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GENUS XIV .- CORCULIO.

These insects are in some parts called aveofils: near an hundred different kinds are enumerated in the System of Nature. The antennæ are subclavated, and situated in a projected rostrum of a horny substance.

Upon these insects Nature seems to have profusely lavished the most resulgent and vivid tints which dazzle the eye. Often, however, the curculiones, peculiar to our country, are so diminutive in size, that we are only admitted to survey their beauties by means of the microscope.

In their larva state the animals of this genus are neither so inossensive nor so beautiful, as to entitle them to the favour of man. They penetrate into the grains of corn while yet of small size; and in proportion as they grow, they increase the boundaries of their habitation, by eating out the heart of the grain. As the number of these insects is great, the mischief they occasion in granerics and corn-losts is often very considerable. After lying for some time, the grain which they frequent is entirely consumed to the husks; and however sound it may externally appear, it is no sooner exposed to the wind, than it blows before it like chass.

It is in the husks of grain, after they have ate the subflance, that these animals are transformed into chrysalids: and when ready to come forth winged, they perforate their

manfion to make room for their escape.

The green corculio is of a bluish green, shining with a fine resplendent shade of gold, like the neck of a pigeon: the head, thorax, abdomen, and seet, are all of this beautiful colour; the antennæ are black, having the last articulation longer than the rest.

GENUS XV .- ATTELABUS.

This tribe very much refembles the last, but is inferior in fize and beauty: the animals which compose it have the head inclined, and gradually tapering towards the thorax; the antennæ increase in thickness as they approach the extremity.

GENUS XVI.—CERAMBYX. THE CAPRICORN.

Beetles owe their original to larvæ resembling fost slender worms,

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worms, whose heads are scaly, and who are provided with fix hard legs. These larvæ, which produce a race of the most beautiful infects, are in general white, and are found in the inner part of trees. It is from these cavities that the winged capricorn is seen issuing, as soon as it has completed its last change; and in this act it is easily caught. Many of these infects emit a strong smell, which is selt at a considerable distance; and when said hold of, they utter a cry, occasioned, as is supposed, by the friction of the thorax and abdomen.

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GENUS XVII.-LEPTURA. THE WOOD BEETLE.

The antennæ of these insects are setaceous; the elytra diminish in breadth toward their extremity; and the thorax is sound and slender. The larvæ of the wood beetles are sound, like those of the last genus, in the personated trunks of trees, and, like them, they devour the pulverized wood when digging their retreat.

GENUS XVIII .- NECYDALIS. OF THE CARRION EATER.

There are eleven species, which have obtained their English name from their supposed predilection for carrion. In their winged state they generally frequent the woods; their residence and habits while larves are wholly unknown. The generic characters of these infects are, the setaceous form of the antennæ, and the shape of the elytra, which are either shorter or narrower than the abdomen.

GENUS XIX .- LAMPYRIS. THE FIRE FLY

Is characterized by filiform antennæ, flexible elytra, at found flattened thorax, furrounding and concealing the head; the females are, in most species, without wings. It is the female of one species of these insects that is in this country termed the glow-worm, from that phosphorescent light which it emits during night. Two or three of these animals, inclosed in a glass vase, will give a light sufficient to enable a person to read in the darkest night.

This fingular phenomenon is observed most frequently in the month of June, when the animal is in motion. The semale can withdraw or display this light at pleasure, by the Hh 3 contracting

contracting or unfolding her body. When crushed with the hand, this luminous substance of the glow-worm adheres to it, and continues to shine till it is dried up.

GENUS XX .- CANTHARIS.

The infects of this family are numerous, and distinguishable into twenty-seven different kinds. From the similarity of the name, some have supposed them the same with the cantharides imported from Spain, whose virtues are so well known in medicine; that insect, however, belongs to a different genus. The cantharis frequents flowers; its larva resembles that of the cerambyx already described.

GENUS XXI.—ELATER. THE SKIPPER

Is diffinguished by setaceous antennæ, but more particularly by an elastic spine which springs from the under side of the thorax, near the extremity. By means of this spring these animals, when turned upon the back, are capable of jumping into the air, and recovering their position.

GENUS XXII .- CICINDELA. THE SPARKLER.

The porrected jaws afford an easy mark to discriminate the insects of this genus; they are both armed with teeth; the eyes of these animals form another striking peculiarity,

being fingularly prominent.

The cicindela campestris is one of the most beautiful which this country affords. The whole upper parts of the body are green, tinged with blue; underneath is a mixture of yellow, red, and copper. The elytra are delicately marked, each with small white spots. These animals are all rapacious, devouring whatever they can overcome.

GENUS XXIII .- BUPRESTIS. THE COW BURNERS,

Both in their external figure and manners, nearly refemble the skippers already described; their colours, however, are far more resplendent; and, when viewed with a microscope, their effulgence dazzles the eye. From this circumstance they have obtained in France, where they are more numerous than in this country, the name of Richards.

The characters of this genus are, setaceous antennæ; the

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head drawn back within the thorax; the mouth armed with

GENUS XXIV .- DYTISCUS. THE DIVER

Comprehends twenty-three species of aquatic insects, mostly of a very large size; they are distinguished by the antennæ, which are either setaceous, or terminated by a perfoliated knob.

The divers have obtained their name from the fuddenescape they make from danger, by plunging into water. By day they frequent stagnated pools, whence they issue in the evening to make excursions on the wing. If caught unguardedly, they are in that state capable of giving a severe bite, as well as of wounding the hand with a sharp spine.

GENUS XXV .- CARABUS. THE GROUND BEETLE

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Contains no less than forty-three species, of the largest of the British insects. They are characterized by setaceous antennæ, and by the shape of the thorax, which resembles a heart, the point cut off and margined.

In their winged state the heads of these animals are prominent; their mouths, like those of the preceding genus, are armed with jaws, and four feelers. Their eggs are deposited under ground, or in decayed trees, where the larværeside till they are metamorphosed. It is during their caterpillar state that they are prejudicial to gardens, and hence have been ironically called gardeners by the French. It is not, however, vegetable productions alone that they devour, they are the greatest tyrants to other insects, and destroy indiscriminately as many as their strength enables them to overcome.

GENUS XXVI.-TENEBRIO. THE DARKLING

Is commonly of a dark fombre colour; fome have wings under their elytra, while others are apterous; and from this circumstance they have been divided by naturalists into two fections, containing together thirty-three different species. The larvæ of some species reside among rotten sticks or rubbish;

rubbish; those of others take up their abode among flour, and different kinds of food. After they have become perfect insects, they enter houses and destroy every fort of provision. Their principal resort is to damp cellars, where putrid air and darkness attract them. It is from their precipitately avoiding light, as well as their gloomy appearance, that they derive their generic name.

GENUS XXVII.-MELOE. THE BLOSSOM EATER.

Sixteen kinds of these animals are enumerated; and this singular tribe contains in it the genuine cantharis, or blistering fly, and is distinguished by having moniliform antennæ, with the last articulation of an oval shape. In all these infects the head is inflected and gibbous; the thorax round; and the elytra flexible.

The meloe vesicatorius is the species so frequently used in pharmacy; an infect to which man is, perhaps, more deeply indebted than to any individual belonging to this class of beings. The blistering cantharis is about nine lines in length; the colour a refulgent green mixed with azure. In the southern parts of Europe it multiplies exceedingly; some of the provinces of Spain annually receive a large sum for those they export to the rest of Europe. They are there seen slying in vast swarms, and alighting upon trees and shrubs, whose leaves they devour. They are said to prefer the ash leaf to that of any tree in the forest; but whatever leaves they devour, they are uniformly accompanied with a heavy nauseous smell, like that of mice, and thence their haunts are discovered by those who go in quest of them.

In their humid and living state the odour exhaled from these infects is so corrosive and irritating, that the gathering of them is attended with danger. In that occupation the labourers who imprudently collect them in the heat of the day, and with their hands uncovered, are frequently seized with a voiding of blood. The same accidents befall those who unwarily sleep under the trees they frequent.

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GENUS XXVIII .- MORDELA. THE NIBBLER

Has the antennæ filiform and ferrated; the head bent under the neck; the palpi clubbed and obliquely truncated. There are only fix species of the mordella known to naturalists; of these the mordella aculeata is quite black and smooth. The abdomen terminates in a sharp point, and extends a considerable length beyond the tips of the elytra.

GENUS XXIX .- STAPHYLINUS.

The staphylini are sometimes seen upon slowers; but their principal resort is to the dung of cows. All of them when touched turn up the tail, as if with an intention to sting. They are, however, unprovided with that instrument, but bite severely with their jaws when laid hold of. In their larva state these insects so much resemble the perfect animal, that they cannot easily be distinguished.

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Staphylinus maxillosus is the largest British insect of this genus. The jaws, from which it obtains its Linnæan name, are sharp, hard, and rather longer than the head. The whole insect, both above and below, is of a deep black: the elytra do not cover more than one-third of the abdomen, which appears beyond them rough and hairy. The legs are long; each of the tarsi is provided with a tust of hair resembling a brush. This and the other species can sly by means of large wings, which unfold from under the elytra.

GENUS XXX .- FORFICULA. THE EARWIG

Is feen every where; it even enters our inmost apartments. The formidable name of earwig has arisen from an opinion, which we believe is not wholly unfounded, that these insects entered into the ears of people while asleep, and thence penetrated into the brain, where they occasioned much pain, often madness and death. The French appellation, which signifies the ear-piercer, urges this accusation in still plainer terms.

It destroys flowers; and wherever fruit has been wounded by stronger infects, the earwig generally attends for a fecond feast. It is amazing in how little room the long wings of these animals are packed before they built from their chrysalid state; and even after they are protruded, the animal, by means of the joints and muscles with which they are furnished, folds them up under the elytra, that you would imagine it altogether deprived of these instruments.

MORAL AND INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHY. No. XII.

THE LIFE OF GEORGE BUCHANAN.

THIS illustrious Scotch writer was born at Killairn. in Dumbartonshire, in 1506, of a family antient indeed but not wealthy. His mother was left a widow in diffressed circumstances with eight children, five of whom were fons. James Heriot, their natural uncle, perceiving peculiar marks of genius in George, undertook the expence of his education, and fent him to Paris, then accounted the most famous university in Europe. Here, however, he continued but two years, being obliged to return to his own country in 1520, in consequence of the death of his uncle, and his own want of health. As foon as he was recovered, he entered into the army, but in a short time grew weary of a military life; and in 1524 went to the university of St. Andrew's to fludy logic, under John Major, a celebrated professor. The year following he accompanied his tutor to Paris, where he imbibed the doctrines of Luther, which then made a great noise. After struggling through many hardships, he was, in 1529, chosen to teach grammar in the college of St. Barbé, at Paris; but how long he continued there does not appear. He next entered into the service of the Earl of Cassilis, with whom he spent five years very agreeably, partly in France and partly in his own country. During this connexion he translated into Latin Linacer's Rudiments of English Grammar, which he dedicated to his patron. On the death of that nobleman he was engaged by James I. of Scotland to be preceptor to his natural fon, the Earl of Murray, afterwards regent of the Call lus attentions, kingdom.

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kingdom. About this time he wrote his Somnium, a Latin elegy, in which he io ridiculed the order of St. Francis, as greatly to irritate the monks against him. The king, who liked that order no better than our author did, fet him to attack the order again, and accordingly he produced his animated fatire, entitled "Franciscani," which so provoked the friars, that they resolved to have his life. Knowing their vindictive spirit to be implacable, and not much relying on the king's protection, Buchanan fled to England in 1539, whence he foon after went to Paris. Here his greatest enemy, Cardinal Beaton, was at that time engaged as ambaffador from Scotland to the French court. Fearing the power and malice of the Cardinal, Buchanan quitted Paris as expeditiously and as filently as he could, and retired to Bourdeaux, whither he had received an invitation from Andreas Govea, a learned Portugueze, who immediately chose him to be his affistant in the public school.

Here Buchanan remained three years, and wrote his four tragedies, "The Baptista," "Medea," "Jepththa," and "Alcestis." His chief object in these pieces, the first and third of which are entirely of his own composition, on the Grecian model, and the others translated from Euripides, was to oppose the prevailing taste for allegories. These dramas procured him deservedly a great reputation, which was increased by his Odes, his Version of the Psalms, his Satires, Elegies, Silvæ, Hendeca Syllables, Iambics, Epigrams, Mitcellanies, and his books on the Sphere.

While our poet refided at Bourdeaux, the Emperor Charles V. passed through that city, and Buchanan, as one of the rectors of the university, was appointed to address him in a Latin poem, in which he celebrated the renown of that prince with so much elegance, that he not only bestowed on him a liberal reward, but expressed an unusual

degree of affection for the city.

The retreat of Buchanan being discovered by his enemies, particularly by Beaton, that haughty prelate prevailed on the Archbishop of Bourdeaux, to endeavour to apprehend him. This design, however, was frustrated by our author's friends; and, on the death of the King of Scotland, in 1542, the Cardinal had other objects to call his attention.

Of the next four years of Buchanan's life we know no more than that they were spent in different parts of France.

In 1547 he went to Portugal, being invited thither by his old friend Govea, who was appointed head of the new university of Coimbra. Here Buchanan lived in tranquillity till the death of Govea, which happened in 1549; and then he had to encounter the tyrannical perfecution of the monks, particularly those of the Franciscan order. At their instigation he was thrown into the prison of the Inquisition. where he remained a year and a half, and then was fent to a monaftery, to be instructed in the principles of the Roman Catholic religion. While he was in this place he relieved the tediousness of confinement by turning several of David's Pfalms into Latin verse, which, it is faid, were so agreeable

to the monks, that they gave him his liberty.

On quitting the gloomy walls of the convent, he earneftly wished to return to France, but the King of Portugal being defirous of retaining him in that country, prevented him from going thither. He then got on board a veffel bound to England, and arrived here in 1552. After a short ftay in this country he went over to Paris, and continued there two years. While he abode in that city he published his "Alcestis," and wrote his "Fratres Fraterimi," in one book, confifting of epigrams and smaller poems, intended chiefly to fatirize the clergy of the Roman church. Charles de Cossi, Mareschal de Brissac, prevailed on him to undertake the education of his fon Timoleon de Coffi, which task he fulfilled in the most honourable manner, and in consequence was admitted into the Mareschal's most particular confidence. This connexion continued till the year 1560, and not long afterwards he returned to his native land, where he was appointed principal of St. Leonard's College, at St. Andrew's. Here he principally applied himself to the instruction of the students in philofophy, employing his leifure time in preparing a complete edition of his poems for the public. But though poetry, grammar, and philosophy, feem to have been his chief thudy in early life, yet he did not neglect theology; and indeed so high stood his reputation in this line, that, in 1567, he was chosen Moderator to the S, nod of Scotland. About

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the end of 1563 he was appointed, by order of the Privy Council and States of the Realm, to take charge of the education of James, the fon of Mary Queen of Scots, afterwards our James I. This important office he discharged with strict justice, and perhaps no prince was ever blessed with such a preceptor. James, though not a wise, was unquestionably a learned monarch; and for that qualification he was solely indebted to the attention of Buchenan.

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The latter years of this great man's life were occupied in writing the History of Scotland; a work, in point of style, little inferior to that of Sallust, and an honest and well arranged detail of facts. Though so much esteemed and distinguished, he is said to have left neither estates nor money behind him; a circumstance rather unaccountable, as he had enjoyed some lucrative posts in his old age. He died at Edinburgh, September 28, 1582, in the seventy-sixth year of his age.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF NATIONS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUS-TOMS OF THE INHABITANTS OF JAPAN.

JAPAN is a general name given to a great number of islands lying between the eastern coast of Asia and the western coast of America, all of which together form a large and powerful empire. They extend from the thirtieth to the forty-first degree of north latitude, and from the one hundred and thirtieth to the one hundred and forty-seventh degree east longitude.

If South and North Britain were divided by an arm of the sea, Japan might be aptly compared to England, Scotland, and Ireland, with their respective smaller islands, peminsulas, bays, channels, &c. all under the same monarch.

The Europeans call the empire Japan, but by the inhabitants it is called Niphon, from the largest island belonging to it; and the Chinese call it Ciphon, probably on account of its eastern situation, as these names signify in both languages

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the foundation of the fun. Japan was discovered by the Portugueze about the year 1542. The Chinese, however, pretend that these islands were peopled by themselves, though it is highly probable that the original inhabitants were from different nations, driven thither by storms at different times.

The feafons in these islands are very inconstant; their winters are exceffively cold, and in their fummers the rains are to violent, that the months of June and July are called fat-fuki, or water months. The foil, though naturally barren and mountainous, by the industry of the inhabitants. supplies them with every necessary of life in great abundance. And some of the mountains are enriched with mines of gold, filver, copper, tin, lead, iron, and various other minerals and foffils, while others abound with marble and precious stones. One of these mountains, on account of its great height, may be deemed a natural curiofity. It is thought to be equal in fize to the famous Peak of Teneriffe; but it may rather be called a clufter or group of mountains, among which are no less than eight dreadful volcanoes, burning with incredible fury, and often laying wafte the country around them: they, however, afford great variety of medicinal waters, of almost every degree of heat to that of boiling oil.

Many brooks and rivers have their fources among the mountains, and form a great number of delightful cafcades, as well as fome dreadful cataracts. The forests abound with trees of various kinds; but the cedars, on these islands, exceed, in straightness, height, and beauty, all of that class through India. The neighbouring seas, besides great plenty of fish, abound with red and white coral, and pearls of considerable value.

The Japan islands are subject to frequent and very dreadful earthquakes, to which the inhabitants are so much accustomed as to pay little attention to them, unless they chance to be so terrible as to lay villages and towns in ruins. They then have recourse to extraordinary sacrifices, and acts of worship, to their different damons and deities; and sometimes they even proceed to offer human victims; but

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which they truft in for antwession all questions, whether in

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Eur ever very relip whi thefe are generally taken from the worst and most abandoned criminals, because they are only sacrificed to appeare the fury of malevolent deities.

The religion of Japan is Pagan, fplit into different fects, who live together in the greatest harmony. Every feet has its own temples and priefts. The spiritual emperor, the Dairi, is the chief of their religion. They acknowledge and honour a supreme being. Dr. Thunberg informs us, that he faw two temples of the God of Gods of a most majestic height. The idol that represented this God was of gilded wood, and of fo prodigious a fize, that fix persons might fit on his hands in the Japanese custom. In the other temple the infinite power of this God was represented by more than thirty thousand little gods standing round the great idol that represented God. The priests are numerous, but have nothing to do but to clean the pavement of the temple, light the lamps, and dress the idols with flowers. The temples are open to every body, even to foreigners, who, in case they are in want of a lodging, are entertained with hospitality in them.

The inhabitants of Japan are fout and very active; they do not equal the more northern nations of Europe in the strength of their bodies. The colour of the face is commonly yellow, which fometimes varies to a brown, and sometimes to a white. The inferior classes, who, during their work in fummer, have the upper parts of the body naked, are fun-burnt and very dark; but women of diftinction, who never go uncovered into the open air, are

perfectly white.

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The national character confifts in intelligence, prudence. politeness, frankness, good temper, civility, curiosity, induftry, and dexterity; economy and sobriety, cleanliness, justice, and fidelity: in being also mistrustful, superstitious,

haughty, refentful, brave, and invincible.

Their curiofity is excessive; nothing imported by the Europeans escapes it. They feek information concerning every article, and their questions continue till they become very troublesome. The physicians are regarded with great respect as the learned, and they are consolted as oracles. which they trust in for answers on all questions, whether in

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mathematics,

mathematics, geography, physics, chemistry, pharmacs,

zoology, botany, medicine, &c.

Economy is faid to have as peculiar abode in Japan. It is a virtue admired, as well in the emperor's palace as in the meanest cottage. It makes those who possess but little contented, and it prevents the abundance of the rich from overslowing in excess and voluptuousness. Hence scarcity and famine are unknown in Japan; and though the state is exceedingly populous, yet there is scarcely to be seen a beggar or necessitous person.

The names of families and of fingle persons are under very different regulations from ours. The family name is never changed, nor even used in ordinary conversation. They make use of the family name in signing writings, to which also they affix their seal. There is also another peculiarity, viz. that the sirname is always placed first: the other is changed several times in the course of life. A child receives, at birth, from its parents a name which is retained till itself has a son arrived at maturity. A person changes his name upon the investiture of any office, as also when he is advanced to a higher trust: some, as emperors and princes, acquire a new name after death. The names of the women are less variable; they are in general borrowed from the most beautiful flowers.

The dress of the Japanese deserves, more than that of any other people, the name of national, fince it is not only different from that of all other people, but is of the same form for both fexes in all ranks, from the monarch to his manest fubject; and what feems to exceed all credibility, it has not been altered for these two centuries and a half. It consists of a kind of night-gown made long and wide, feveral of which are worn at once by all ranks and ages. The more diftinguished and the rich have them of the finest filk, the poorer fort of cotton. Those of the women reach down to the ground, and have a train; in the men they reach down to the heels. Travellers, foldiers, and labourers either tuck them up or wear them only down to their knees. habit of the men is generally of one colour; the women have their's variegated, and frequently interwoven with flowers of gold. In furnmer they are without lining, or

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have but a thin one; in winter they are stuffed to a great thickness with cotton or filk. The men seldom wear a great number, but the women thirty, fifty, or more, all fo thin, that they fcarcely together weigh five pounds. The undermost serves for a shirt, and they are all fastened round the waift with a belt of fuch a length, that it goes twice round the waift, and afterwards is tied in a knot with many bows. The knot among the fair fex is very conspicuous, and immediately informs the spectator whether they are The unmarried have it behind, and the married or not. married before. In this belt the men fix their fabres, fans, pipe, tobacco, and medicine boxes. The gowns are always cut round without a collar, leaving the neck bare; the fleeves are always ill made, and out of all proportion wide; reaching almost to the ground. Such, however, is the simplicity of the habit, that they are soon dreffed; and toundress they need only open their girdle and draw in their arms.

As the gowns, from their length, keep the legs and thighs warm, they have no occasion for stockings; but persons on a journey and soldiers have buskins made of cotton. Their shoes, made of rice straw, consisting only of a sole, is the most wretched part of their dress. The shoes are fastened on by means of a band, which at the one end passes through a bow of linen, and at the other goes round the great toe. The Japanese never enter their houses with shoes, but put them off in the entrance, which is a precaution taken for the sake of their neat carpets:

The way of dreffing the hair is also peculiar to this people. The men shave the head from the forehead to the neck; and the hair remaining on the temples and in the nape is well before with oil, turned upwards, and tied with a white paper thread wrapped round several times. The ends of the hair beyond the head are cut crossways, about a singer's length being lest, which is bent in such a manner that the point is brought to the crown of the head, where it is sattened. Women, except such as happen to be separated from their husbands, shave no part of their head.

The head is never covered with hat or bonnet in winter or in fummer, except when they are on a journey; and Li3

then they use a conical bat, made of grass, and fastened with a ribband. Some travelling women have a bonnet like a shaving bason inverted on the head, which is made of cloth, in which gold is interwoven. On other occasions their naked heads are preserved from the rain and the sun by umbrellas. Travellers have riding coats made of oiled paper.

A Japanese always has his arms painted on one or more of his garments, on the sleeves, or between the shoulders, so that nobody can steal them, which might otherwise easily happen in a country where the clothes are so much alike in

stuff, shape, and fize.

There are no wheel carriages in Japan for the fervice of travellers, therefore all those that are poor travel on foot. But for the rich, and those who are able to pay, there are a variety of carriages. In travelling, instead of long nightgowns, they often wear trowfers or linen breeches, which reach half-way down the legs; and travelling foldiers tie these up their thighs. Such as ride on horseback make, for the most part, a strange appearance; as, frequently, several persons are mounted on one horse, sometimes a whole family. In this case the man is seated on the saddle, with his legs laid forward over the horse's neck; the wife occupies a basket made fast to one side of the saddle, and the children are placed in another basket on the other side: a person always walks before, to lead the horse by the bridle. Feople of property are carried in a kind of fedan chairs, that differ from each other in point of fize and ornament, according to the different rank of the owners. (A representation of one of these is given in this number of the Preceptor.) The meanest fort of these sedans are small, which obliges the person who fits in them to have his feet under the seat. They are open on all fides, covered with a small roof, and carried by two men. The kangoes are covered in, and closed on the fides; but they are almost square, and by no means elegant. The largest and handsomest are called norimons, and are used by persons in the higher departments of o ee, and are borne by feveral men. At the inns in every town and village there is always a number of men who offer their fervices to the traveller.

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The norimen and kango bearers can carry very heavy burthens to a great diffance; and not only travellers but goods, which they carry tied to each end of a pole, or bamboo, across their shoulders; they generally go a Japanese mile, or league, in an hour, and from ten to twelve of these miles in a day.

(To be consluded in the next number.)

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THE ANTIENT AND MODERN HISTORY OF NATIONS.

EGYPT.

(Concluded from page 306.)

TROM the time that Egypt became a province of the Roman empire, it continued feveral centuries in a frate of subjection, either to the emperors of Rome or Conflantinople. In the fix hundred and forty-first year of the Christian æra, Omar, a caliph of the Saracens, subdued this kingdom. Omar was one of the most rapid conquerors of modern history. He drove the Greeks from Syria and Phœnicia: Jerusalem was surrendered to him; his generals took the capital of Persia; and soon after Memphis and Alexandria fubmitted to his victorious troops. In this conquest the truly celebrated Alexandrian library was burnt by these favages, who, it is faid, heated their stoves with its valuable books. Omar was affastinated by a Persian slave, after a reign of ten years: but Egypt continued to be governed by his fuccessors till the, year 889, when an independent government was established by Ahmed Ebn Tolun, who excited a fucceisful rebellion against the caliph of Bagdad. By him and his successors it was governed for twenty-feven years, when it was reduced by Al-Moctafi, caliph of Bagdad. Thirty years after, gypt was again an independent state, being joined with Syria, under Mahomet Ebn Tai, who had been appointed governor of these provinces. This government, however, was also but short-lived; for, in the year 963, it was conquered by Jawhar.

Jawhar, one of the generals of Moez, the Fatemite caliph of Cairwan, in Barbary.

No fooner was Moez informed of the fuccess of his general, than he prepared, with all expedition, to go and take possession of his new conquest. Accordingly he ordered all the vast quantities of gold, which he and his predecessors had amaffed, to be cast into ingots of the fize and figure of the mill-stones used in hand-mills, and conveyed them on camels into Egypt. To flew that he was determined to abandon his dominions in Barbary, and to make Egypt the residence of himself and his successors, he caused the remains of the three former princes of his race to be removed from Barbary, and to be deposited in a stately mosque, erected for that purpose, in the city of Cairo, in Fgypt.

To establish himself the more effectually in his new dominions, Moez suppressed the usual prayers made in the mosques for the caliphs of Bagdad, and substituted his own name in their flead. This was complied with in Egypt, Syria, and through the whole of Arabia, the city of Mecca only excepted. The confequence of this was a schism in the Mahometan faith, which continued two hundred years, and was attended with continual anathemas, and destructive wars between the caliphs of Bagdad and those of Egypt. Moez, after having fully established himself in his new kingdom, died three years after he had left his dominions in Barbary, and was succeeded by his son Al Aziz, whose reign was spent in continued warfare: he died in the midst of his army, and was fucceeded by Al Hakem, whose reign is remarkable for nothing fo much as the madness with which the caliph was feized, which first manifested itself by his iffuing many prepofterous edicts; and, at length, grew to fuch a height, that he fancied himself a god, and found fixteen thousand persons who acknowledged him as such. These were mostly the Dararians, a new feet, sprung up under a chief firnamed Darari. He is supposed to have infpired the mad caliph with this impious notion; and as-Darari set up for a second Moses, he did not scruple to affert that Al Hakeln was the great Creator of the Universe. For this reason a zealous Turk, willing to prove the truth of the new doctrines, stabbed Darari in the caliph's chariot. kivad

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His death was followed by three days uproar in the city of Cairo, during which Darari's house was pulled down, and many of his followers maffacred. The feet, however, did not expire with its author; he left behind him a disciple named Hamza, who, being encouraged by the mad caliph, spread the superfition so far and wide, as to induce the zealous Mahometans to apprehend that Al Hahem meant to suppress entirely the worship of the true God, and introduce his own in its place. From this dread they were, however, delivered by the death of the caliph, who was affassinated by a contrivance of his own sister, in the year 1020.

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During the next reign nothing remarkable occurred; but in the succeeding one Bagdad was taken, and Al Mostanser, the Fatemite caliph, caused the Turkish vizier to be led on a camel through the fireets of Bagdad, with a high red bonnet, a leathern collar about his neck, a man lashing him all the way behind. Afterwards he caused him to be sewed up in a bull's hide, with the horns placed over his head, and hung upon hooks, where he was beaten till he died. The imperial palace was plundered, and the monarch was detained a close prisoner.

This fuccess was short-lived, and hence we may date the declenfion of the Egyptian empire under the caliphs. In the year 1066, as the effect of a most dreadful war, a famine raged over the whole of Egypt and Syria, with fuch anexampled fury, that dogs and cats were fold for large fums of money. Multitudes of the people died in Cairo for want of food. So great indeed was the foarcity, that the vizier had but one servant left who was able to attend him to the caliph's palace, and to whom he gave the care of his horse, when he alighted at the gate; but, at his return, he was surprized to find that the horse had been carried off; killed, and eaten by the famished people. Of this he complained to the caliph, who caused three of those persons who had carried off the horse to be hanged. The next day, however, he was still more surprized to hear that all the flesh had been picked off the bones of the three unhappy criminals, so that nothing but the skeletons were left. And to fuch a degree of milery were the inhabitants of all Egypt

Egypt reduced, that the carcafes of those who died were

fold for food at a great price.

This famine was followed by a plague, which was fucceeded by an invation of the Turks, who ravaged all Lower Egypt, from Cairo to Alexandria, committing the most horrid cruelties through that whole tract.

In the year 1095 Al Mostanser died, after a reign of fixty years, and was fucceeded by his fon Al Mostali, the most remarkable event of whose reign was his taking the city of Jerusalem from the Turks, in 1098, which, in the following year, was taken from him by the crufaders.* From this time to the year 1164 the Egyptian history affords little elfe. than an account of the intestine broils and contests between the viziers, or prime ministers, who had now become so powerful, that they had, in a great measure, stripped the caliphs of their civil power, and left them nothing but a shadow of spiritual tyranny. These contests, at last, gave occasion to a revolution, by which the race of the Fatemite caliphs was totally extinguished.

Saladin affumed the title of Sultan or fovereign of Egypt in the year 1174, and established the empire of the Turks in Africa. Saladin was equally renowned as a warrior and legislator. He supported himself by his valour, and the influence of an amiable character, against the united efforts of the chief Christian potentates of Europe, who were carrying on the celebrated crusades. In 1193 he died, to the inexpressible grief of all true Mahometans, who held him in the highest veneration. His dominions in Syria and Paleftine were shared out among his children and relations into many petty principalities. His fon Othman fucceeded to the crown of Egypt; but as none of his fuccessors possessed the enterprifing genius of Saladin, the history from that time till the year 1250, affords nothing remarkable. At this period the reigning Sultan, Al Salek, was dethroned and flain by the Mamelukes, or, as they are fometimes called, the Mamlouks, a kind of mercenary foldiers, who ferved under him, and who became masters of Egypt, and chose a fultan from among themselves.

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These Mamelukes are thought to have been young Turks or Tartars, fold to private persons by the merchants, of whom they were bought by the fultan, educated at his expence, and employed to defend the maritime places of the kingdom. The reason of this institution originally was, that the native Egyptians were become fo cowardly, treacherous, and effeminate, from a long course of flavery, that they were unfit for arms. The Mamelukes, on the contrary, made most excellent foldiers; for having no friends but among their own corps, they turned all their thoughts to their profession. According to M. Volney they were originally brought from Mount Causacus by the crusaders, were diffinguished by the flaxen colour of their hair, and were by them called Mame ukes. They were introduced into Egypt by the Tartars, who, in their conquest, being weary of flaughter, brought along with them an immense number of flaves of both fexes, with whom they filled all the markets of Afia. The Turks, taking advantage of the opportunity, purchased about twelve thousand young men, whom they bred up to the profession of arms, in which they foon attained to great perfection; but becoming mutinous, they turned their arms against their masters, and, in 1250, deposed and murdered the fultan, as has been already related.

The Mamelukes, notwithstanding their martial abilities, did not long retain their empire. A numerous standing army being necessary to keep the country in awe, and fearing to trust the natives with power, they purchased a number of Christian flaves, to educate them in the same manner as they themselves had been brought up; and when they were completed in their military education, these soldiers were disposed of through all the fortresses erected in the country; and because, in their own language, such a fort was called Borge, the new militia obtained the name of In process of time the Borgites, taking advantage of the indolence of their mafters, deprived them of their power, and transferred the government to themselves in 1382. The Borgites then assumed the name of Mamelukes, were famous for their valour and terocity, and were almost perpetually engaged in wars, either foreign or domestic, as

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long as their dominion lasted. In the year 1517 they were invaded by Selim, the Turkish sultan. The Mamelukes desended themselves with incredible valour, but, being overpowered by numbers, they were deseated in every engagement. The same year their capital, the city of Cairo, was taken, the sultan was obliged to fly, and though he afterwards collected his forces, and ventured the sate of a decisive battle, yet it was but to witness the destruction of his whole army. In a short time afterwards he was taken by the enemy and put to death, and with him ended the glory and almost the existence of the Mamelukes.

This was the last great revolution in the Egyptian affairs; * a revolution very little to the advantage of the natives, who may well doubt whether their antient or modern conquerors have thewn the greater degree of barbarity. Selim gave a specimen of his government the day after he took possession of it, by putting to death the unfortunate fultan, Tuman Bey. And having caused a theatre to be erected on the banks of the Nile, he ordered all the prifoners, to the number of thirty thousand, to be beheaded in his presence, and their bodies thrown into the river. He did not, however, attempt to extirpate the Mamelukes entirely, but established a form of government in which they enjoyed a share. With this view he chose from among those who had escaped the general flaughter, a divan, or council of regency, confifting of the pacha, and chiefs of the feven military corps. The former was to notify to this, council the orders of the Turkish government, to send tribute to Constantinople; and to provide for the fafety of government, both external and internal: while, on the other hand, the members of the council had a right to reject the orders of the pacha, and even to depose him, provided they could affign fufficient reasons for to doing. All civil and political ordinances must also be ratified by them. Selim iffued the following edict, by which he formed the whole body into a republic: "Though, by the help of the

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^{*} We shall hereafter give an an account of the present state of Egypt, since the changes introduced by the French, under the article of Manners and Customs of Nations.

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Almighty, we have conquered the whole kingdom of Egypt with our invincible armies, nevertheless our benevolence is willing to grant to the twenty-four (fange) governors of the provinces of Egypt a republican form of government, under certain restrictions." The principal of these refrictions were, (1.) That the Turkish sovereignty should be acknowledged, and have its lieutenant received as a representative. (2.) That in time of war the republic should provide, at its own expence, twelve thousand troops, to be commanded by fangiacs. (3.) That it should fend annually to the Sublime Porte about feventy thousand pounds sterling, and as much for Medina and Mecca, besides a million meafures of corn. (4.) That the republic should not keep more than fourteen thousand janizaries, or troops, in the time of peace. (5.) That the republic should elect a sheikbellet, out of the number of beys, to be confirmed by the lieutenant; and that the faid sheik-bellet should be the representative and head of the republic.

Thus the power of the Mamelukes still continued to a very confiderable degree, and gradually increased so much as to threaten a total loss of dominion to the Turks. In the year 1746 Ibrahim, a commanding officer among the janizaries, rendered himself in reality master of Egypt, having managed matters fo well; that of the twenty-four beys or fangiacs eight were of his own household. Thus the pacha became altogether unable to oppose him, and the orders of the fultan were less respected than those of Ibrahim. his death his family continued to reign in a despotic manner; but in 1766 Ali Bey, who had been formerly bought as a flave, made himself absolute master of Egypt, and reigned with various fuccess as a warrior till, 1773, when he was overcome, and probably poisoned by Mohammed Bey. who pretended to be a defender of the rights of the fultar, and fent tribute to Constantinople. Mohammed afterwards governed with the greatest tyranny, and made war upon his enemies with the most dreadful cruelty, till a malignant fever put an end to the tyrant in 1776, after an illness of two days. The government was from that time till the year 1786 divided, after many contests, between Morad Bey and Ibrahim Bey. Since that time till the invalion of Vol. II. Kk Egypt

Egypt by the French, we have no accounts of any remarkable transactions of the government of Egypt, which, according to M. Volney, "was carried on by a series of cabals, intrigues, treachery, and murders."*

PRACTICAL.

* Pharafna, Selosbyze, Protnyf, Sabacpub, Sethoizu.
Plammitful, Nefap, Nebuclaun, Cambudu, Alexita, Ptoltet.
Omarfot, Ahmedeikou, Al Mocnas, Moeznauk, Al Hakdy, Motanfau.

Jerusnou, Saladboif, Mamduz, Borgike, Sellap, Ibrapos.

The foregoing memorial lines will ferve to bring to the reader's memory the principal occurrences and revolutions in the Egyptian history. The first remarkable event, of which we have hitherto attempted to fix a date, is the overthrow of Pharaoh in the Red Sea, 1491 years before Christ. We have followed Sir I. Newton in fixing the commencement of SESOSTRIS' reign at 1002 years B. C.; and that of Cetes, or PROTEUS, at 904 years B. C. SABACON, the Ethiopian, conquered Egypt 751 years B. C.; and his son, SETHON, who is celebrated rather as a priest than as a monarch, succeeded his father in 705 B. C.

At the death of Sethon Egypt was divided into twelve distinct governments, which, in 655 B. C. were united under the power of PSAMMATICHUS. NECHUS, who is celebrated for attempting to sut through the isthmus between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, began his reign 617 B. C. Egypt was conquered and Jaid waste by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, in 569 B. C. CAMBYSES made Egypt tributary to Persia in the year 525, and it continued a province to the Persian empire till the time of ALEXANDER the Great, in 331 B. C. At whose death PTOLEMY, one of his generals, took possession of Egypt 323 B. C., and he and his posterity maintained themselves in it 240 years, when it shared the fate of other kingdoms, and became a part of the Roman empire.

From this time till A.D. 643, Egypt was in a state of subjection, either to the emperors of Rome or Constantinople, when OMAR, a Saracen chief, subdued the kingdom, whose name will be ever infamous, on account of the destruction of the Alexandrian Library. In the year 389 the successors of Omar were driven from Egypt, and an independent government was established by AHMED EBN-TOLUN, which, however, was overthrown by AL MOCTASI, in the year 916. MOEZ, a caliphof Barbary, got possession of Egypt in 968, and established his government in that country. AL HAKEM, one of Moez's successors, set himself up as the supreme

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PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS

On Tafte, Literature, and the Art of Composition.

CONTINUED IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO

AM ANTHON ALLETTER XII. WESTER AND ANTHON

My dear George, and home of medonial medicine

I SHALL now confider another character of style, which is of the utmost importance; and that is, simplicity, which implies a natural style, in opposition to an affected one. Simplicity of style is a word that frequently occurs, but as it is often used in a vague and undetermined sense, in order to ascertain its meaning better, I shall take notice of its different significations.

Ift. It implies that a composition is simply and regularly arranged; not divided into a great number of parts, which puzzle and embarrass the reader instead of assisting his memory.

2dly. It fignifies plain and obvious thoughts, as contrary to too much refinement. In this fense the thoughts of Dr. Parnell are much more simple than those of Cowley. Cicero's thoughts are often too refined; but neither of these

Deity, was worshipped by fixteen thousand persons, and was assaurant stated in the year 1020. During the reign of his successor, Mo-TANSER, about the year 1066, one of the most dreadful famines raged of which history makes mention. In the next reign JERUSALEM was taken from the Turks, A.D. 1099, in whose hands it had been since the conquest by Omar.

SALADIN affumed the title of Sultan of Egypt, in 1174. In 1250 the MAMELUKES seized the government of the country, which they kept till they were driven out of it by the BORGITES, in 1382. In 1517 they were invaded and deposed by Selim, the Turkish Sultan, celebrated for his cruelty. He established a republican form of government, which lasted till 1746, when IBRAHIM made himself master of Egypt, which is the last revolution of this country that need be noticed in our memorial lines.

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fenses properly apply to the style we are at present con-

fidering.

3dly. It applies to the clothing of our fentiments in a plain drefs, without too much ornament. In this fense we may say that Swift is a plain, simple writer, in opposition to Hervey, who is a florid one.

4thly. It fignifies a free, easy, and natural mode of expressing our sentiments, in opposition to all affectation; and

this is the way we are to understand it at present.

It confifts in making use of fuch language as the generality of our readers imagine they would use in describing the same ideas; not to show the orator's labour, but the man and his heart. An affected, pompous ftyle exhibit the author like a man at court, where all are dreffed much in the fame fashion; but the simple manner of expression reprefents him in retirement, where we have access to know his heart and character. Archbishop Tillotson is an example of this plain and fimple ftyle. His fermons have been defervedly praised; but many commend them who are ignorant of their real beauties. We shall in vain feek for correctness in his writings, for he is very careless and remiss in his language; but it is his good sense and unaffected piety that recommend him to the world, and the plain and eafy manner in which he delivers his thoughts. He always appears amiable, his works are expressive of that goodness of heart, which we must ever admire, and will be read whilft the English language is understood.

Another author of whom it is proper to take notice, in treating of fimplicity, is Sir William Temple. He joins correctness and ornament together: you see the heart of the author through all his works; he sometimes, however, adds tails to his sentences, and his periods are in general too long. He takes a middle course between the correct and slovenly.

but of the perfect, beautiful, and correct,

Mr. Addison may be considered as a complete example: the construction of his periods are harmonious, the language slowing and elegant, without being gaudy; and much modesty joined with politeness, render him always agreeable. He sometimes wants strength and precision.

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and though he is not without beauty in his poetical writings, vet his great merit confifts in his profe. In this department too he fucceeds better in his humorous pieces than in those of a metaphysical complexion. Though there are no writers without fome blemishes, yet those (for the most part) which I have mentioned are thus far exempt from fault, that we are never weary with reading them; we are pleased, without being fatigued. Homer is also simple amidst all his grandeur. Terence and Theocritus are likewife fimple writers; but there are no writings which contain fuch noble and fublime fentiments, expressed in fuch plain and fimple language, as the Holy Scriptures.

Lord Shaftesbury, on the contrary, is an author who has fome beauties of style, but his writings are deformed by affectation; he feems to think it below a nobleman to go on in the common road of authors; he therefore not unfrequently chooses to depart from the rules of common sense: he is fond of figures to excess, and when he has found a good one, he can never let it go. This was the more unpardonable in him, as he was a professed admirer of simplicity, though he never put it in practice, for with him fimplicity confifted in the neglect of all method, and in puerility of thought, instead of plainness of expression. His works are, indeed, but little read or studied, and, I must fay, it does credit to the good sense of the times that they are not. There are not, indeed, any productions extant from which fo few ideas can be collected upon any ufeful topic, either of science or of morals. He is pompous and obscure, without profound investigation; and he is loquacious, without affording entertainment.

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Mr. Blackwall, of Aberdeen, is exceedingly affected in all his writings. Nor must I entirely except from this cenfure the incomparable author of the Rambler. His writings are eminently useful, and have a noble tendency to elevate the fentiments and improve the morals. His ftyle is copious, fmooth, and free from harsh arrangements; but it is tinctured with affectation. He has introduced, perhaps unnecessarily, into the language a number of latinized words; and he has studied harmony so much, that his style inclines to monotony. In this he appears to have K k 3 imitated

imitated the style of Isocrates and Seneca the Rhetorician, which has been censured by all the writers of antiquity. He is also, we must confess, too fond of antitheses, and of contrasting both words and things; and his antitheses are sometimes unnecessary and forced: thus, if he speaks of a person of knowledge and goodness, "he is exalted by knowledge and ennobled by virtue." With all these saults he is a writer who possesses an immense range of thought and dignity of style. His blemishes are specks, which are the more conspicuous, because they are seen on snow; but it is the more necessary to remark them, because by the herd of imitators the errors are copied, when the excellencies of a great writer are not to be attained.

By all that has been said concerning simplicity, I would not infinuate, that nothing more is requisite to an accomplished writer; a person may write simply and not beautifully. True simplicity signifies the dress of nature, which consists in a medium between carelessness or slovenliness, on the one hand, and immoderate affectation on the other. Xenophon seems to have kept this medium perfectly in his Anabasis; but it must not be diffembled that he is not quite free from affectation in some others of his works.

I proceed now to consider another character of style, which is the vehement. This kind of writing has a great deal of life and ardour, and the author is evidently affected with what he writes. Demosthenes is an eminent instance of this style. Lord Bolingbroke may also be enumerated among this class; he was formed by nature for the factious leader of a popular assembly. He is copious even to a fault; and though he always diversifies his phrases, is yet from that circumstance unusually prolix. He is like a torrent that flows down, strong and full indeed, but rather muddy; his periods are well diversified, but very frequently long; his phraseology is precise and lively, but his only merit consists in the language; his reasoning is stimsy and salse, and his philosophy absurd in the highest degree.

Before I conclude this subject, I shall offer you a few rules concerning it. There are some faults which should be avoided in every composition, such as seebleness in exprestion, excessive ornament, affectation, &c. There are also

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beauties at which we ought to aim, such as strength, perspicuity, and propriety, &c. but the following rules, perhaps, include all the affistance that art can give on this subject.

Rule 1st. To write well you should study to acquire a clear idea of the subject. Some may suppose that this has no connection with style; but the case is otherwise, for unless you understand what you write upon, you can never make others understand you. When you are to write, you are to reflect upon all the parts of the subject; when you have got a clear view of it, the words will come of course, and of their own accord.

Rule 2d. You should often compose. No rules are sufficient to form a complete and correct writer without exercise and habit. I do not mean that you should compose much; on the contrary, by writing too fast at first you may contract bad habits, which will take a great deal of trouble before they can be removed. Endeavour therefore to write well, but not fast. Be not over scrupulous with regard to the choice of words, lest the mind cool while you are waiting for them; rather make use of a word which may seem not quite proper, and when you have done lay by the composition till you have forgotten your attachment to any particular phrase in it, and afterwards survey it with a critical eye; then you will be more able to prune redundances, and to smooth the periods.

Rule 3d. Peruse the best authors with a particular attention to their style. By this means you will lay in a store of words, and insensibly adopt their manner of expressing themselves. Be sure to mark every thing peculiar in their manner, so that you may know how afterwards either to adopt or to avoid it.

Rule 4th There is nothing better than to translate pieces from good classical authors, or to give the thoughts of a good writer in your own language, and compare it afterwards carefully with the original. Take, for instance, a passage from Addison or Blair; read it three or four times, and when you have made yourself master of all the sentiments, lay aside the book, and clothe them in your own language; then compare your own performance, after you have rendered and and are and a good and all the sentiments.

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dered it as correct as possible with the original: by this means you will be able to discover your own faults.

Rule 5th. Avoid all fervile imitation of others, for by imitation you will be kept from attempting any thing of your own, and your barrenness will at length be discovered. Never transcribe passages from other writers as your own; this effectually bars all efforts of your own genius, and ex-

poses you to the ridicule of men of learning.

Rule 6th. Always endeavour to adapt the ftyle to the Subject; for nothing can be more ridiculous than to clothe grave subjects in a vain and gaudy dress, or embellish dry reasoning, which must convince only by strength of argument. You must also adapt your discourse to the generality of your audience: nothing can be more abfurd than to use high words and unknown phrases before an unlearned multitude; the ignorant may admire, but the learned will fmile at you.

Rule 7th. Pay at all times more attention to your thoughts than to your words. We may learn almost mechanically a few fine phrases; but it is only the true genius whose fentiments are grand and noble. Let it therefore be your chief care to store the mind with a number of excellent thoughts, and you will rarely find yourself at a loss to express them in proper language. To set these rules in the clearest light, I shall endeavour to illustrate them in my next letter, by a critical examination of Mr. Addison's first paper on the Pleasures of Imagination.*

VISITS TO THE BOTANICAL GARDEN.

FOURTH DAY.

WITE had some time since quitted the storks in the great basin, and now finding ourselves opposite to the amphitheatre, we entered the buildings which are repairing, where a fine orangery is building, and feveral halls ne-

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^{*}In the succeeding number a prize exercise of this kind will be proposed to our young candidates, s, angitule tamina and a sympolitical state ceffary

tion prepared for the elephants, who were foon to arrive.

Gustavus searched on every side for the royal bird (the balearic, or crowned crane); at length he was fortunate enough to discover it. "Here he is! here he is!" cried he. "I know him by his crown, his commanding figure, and the air of grandeur spread over his countenance." "Indeed it is impossible to mistake him. No bird has a more radiated creft. This creft has less the appearance of a bunch of feathers than of a tuft of firaw-coloured filk, fpreading out with admirable elegance, and composed of tufted briftles, flat, and coiled up in a spiral form. Two beautiful pendents of a membranous skin adorn its splendid head: they are pure white on the temples, and of a beautiful rose-colour on the neck; a cap of fine, close, thick down, refembling velvet, adorns its forehead. It has befides a noble port and firiking figure, and is four feet high when it stands erect. The beak is black, as well as the feet and legs, which are still longer than those of the crane. which this bird greatly resembles in its conformation, though it differs from it considerably in other respects. It comes from countries diftant from their's: it belongs to hot climates, the cranes come from cold regions. The plumage of these is dark, but the royal bird is dreffed in the livery of the fouth, of that burning zone where all things are more brilliant. Africa, particularly the territones of Gambia, the Gold Coast, Juida, and Cape Verd, are the parts of which it is an inhabitant. Travellers frequently mention feeing them on great rivers. These birds catch small fish, and also go upon land to feed upon plants and collect feeds; they move very swiftly, by extending their wings, and taking advantage of the wind; otherwise their walk is flow, and their step measured."

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Gustavus looked at the bird with admiration, and prefented to it little pieces of bread, which it came fearlessly to take. "Ah!" cried Gustavus, "if mamma had a royal bird, how much better would it be than her parrot! The parrot scarcely knows me, but this bird is familiar with me already." "This familiarity is his natural disposition. The royal bird is gentle and peaceful; it fears man less than he Botenical sarden.

its other enemies; it appears even to approach us with confidence and pleasure: You are pleased with seeing it, and it is pleased with seeing you. It is even so jealous of receiving vifits, that were it to pass a whole day without seeing company, it would be very fensible to the privation. We are affured that at Cape Verd these birds are half domesticated, and that they come to eat feed in the poultry-yard with the other tame birds. They perch in the open air to fleep, like peacocks, whose cry they imitate; which circumstances, joined to the fimilarity of their crest, have caused some naturalists to give them the name of seapeacocks." " And has the fea-peacock as difagreeable a voice as the common one?" " Very nearly. Its cry much resembles the voice of the crane. It is an echoing found, very like the hoarse accents of a trumpet or a horn. It atters this cry, short, and repeated at intervals, when it is in want of food, and at night when it is looking for a perch. It is also an expression of uneasiness and fatigue; for, as I have already told you, it becomes weary when left too long alone. It loves that people should appear employed about it; and if, after having examined it, a person walks on negligently, without looking at it, it follows him, or walks by his fide for a confiderable diffance; and if any thing diverts. it, and it is left behind, it haftens to rejoin the company. Buffon received one from Guinea, and fed it for some time in a garden. It pecked the plants, particularly the hearts of lettuces and chicory. It passed the winter of 1778 at Paris, without appearing to fuffer from the rigour of a climate so different from its own. It had of itself chosen the thelter of a room with a fire in it; and did not fail every night, at the hour of retiring, to place itself before the door of the chamber, and trumpet to cause it to be opened."

Gustavus was so much struck with the beauty of the royal bird, that he paid little attention to the silver pheafants of China, and the hoccos, which he perceived close to him. We soon left the building; and when we were in the garden, Gustavus stopped, as if trying to recollect an idea which had slipt from his memory. "I have," said he, "a question to ask you, and since I just now remember it, I will ask it directly. When you related to me, the other

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day, the history of the lion of the Menagerie, you did not tell me what was done with his body after his death. Was it buried in the garden, or thrown into the river? Did they preserve his spoils?" "All possible funeral honours were rendered to him. He was stuffed with great care by a very able man. He seems still alive." "And where is he? Could we see him?" "Yes, certainly; he is now at the Depository Magazine, and will soon be taken to the Cabinet of Natural History."

We immediately ascended to the Depository Magazine; and, as we paffed, we faw the Laboratory, where two very ingenious men were at work, one of whom Monfieur Defmoulins, was employed in stuffing the birds and quadrupeds, which were to be placed in the galleries; and the other Monsieur Dufresné, was occupied in preparing insects in fuch a manner that they might be preserved in the cases of the Cabinet. Their business is not merely mechanical; a profound knowledge of natural history is requisite to give to every dead animal the expression that it had during its life. Often a foot extended in the air, a fide look, a direction of the head, are valuable characteristics to be preserved. The various attitudes of the animals can alone give an air of life to galleries of natural history; and in this point the talent and address of Desmoulins cannot be too much applauded. We faw, with the greatest interest, a monkey which he had just prepared in the most animated style. The play of his whole body had so much expression, that any one would have thought him alive. It was he who stuffed the lion, and preserved to him all his majesty. We faw him at the Depository Magazine, which joins to the Laboratory. This vast magazine contains a considerable collection of quadrupeds, which, receiving a new life from the hands of Monsieur Desmoulins, will afterwards adorn the upper galleries of the Cabinet. We there remarked, among other curious objects, the skin of a cameleopard, which is not yet stuffed, but which soon will be and the great mandril, that died at the Menagerie some time before the lion.

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After having admired these various riches, we returned to the shades of the garden, and we would not depart without

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having vifited the newly arrived Indian stags. We faw them enjoying themselves on the grass; and Gustavus feeing these animals so contented and happy, called to mind the words of Cassal with respect to them. We croffed a parterre covered with flowers, and some delighfully fresh thickets. Gustavus stopped for a moment to read an infcription placed in different parts of the garden. He ran to rejoin me, and told me, that this infcription was a notice to the public, in which all persons are intreated to respect the Botanical Garden, for two reasons: first, because it is national property; fecondly, because-here Gustavus tried in vain to recollect the feguel of the notice. "I have forgotten it," faid he, " because this advertisement is very long; but I have always remembered four lines which I faw I know not when, in I know not what public garden, and which come to the fame thing.

"Stranger respect these lawns, these flowers,
From each rude hand their bloom defend;
In Nature's name protect her bowers,
Grateful thy guardian arm extend!"

AN ORIGINAL TALE.

Communicated by Miss Edgeworth, Author of "Practical Education," &c. &c.

TY father was a man of confiderable opulence, and of IVI established credit in London. The habits of circum. fpection and frugality, which are infenfibly acquired in the pursuit of wealth, had not soured his temper, or contracted his natural benevolence; but on the contrary, he found himself, as he advanced in years, not only in the possession of an ample fortune, but also of a mind capable of enjoying and sharing it with his fellow-creatures. The fame of his liberality drew round him numbers who were in want of his affistance; and his discernment, in distinguishing those who were proper objects of his bounty, obtained for him the notice and friendship of many who were difinterested admirers of his virtues. Amongst those of the latter description, I can remember, from my childhood, an elderly gentleman, who had the air and accent of a foreigner, and who, after having

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having casually met and conversed with my father in several places of public resort, seemed particularly to solicit his acquaintance.

My father was equally defirous of cultivating his fociety. and, by degrees, a friendship was cemented between them, which continued without interruption during the remainder of my father's life, and after his death feemed to devolve upon me his only fon. Indeed, I had ever been ambitious of ingratiating myself with the stranger, and of deserving his efteem; for I thought there was fomething about him of fingular fagacity in judging and deciding upon the fecret motives of human actions. I was but a very young boy when I first faw him, but then I was struck with his appearance. He had a remarkable ferenity of aspect, and a general expression of benevolence in his countenance; but an eve which guilt could not withstand, which seemed to penetrate with a glance into the inmost recesses of the heart. Whenever he fixed it upon me, I well remember the awe which it diffused over my whole frame; an awe which even the consciousness of innocence could not conquer.

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Vol. II.

What his thoughts of me were in those moments, I know not; but the reserve of his manner gradually dissipated towards me, and he began to encourage my timidity, and to admit of my childish conversation and familiarity. He had been a great traveller, and had acquired an amazing fund of knowledge, which he perfectly well knew how to dispense in conversation, so as to entertain and instruct. When I was a child, he would often take me between his knees, and tell me marvellous stories, such as were fit to rouse my curiosity, and fix my attention; blending at the same time useful knowledge and moral truths with his narratives, and insusing, as it were, wholesome nourishment with delicacies the most grateful to my palate.

As I grew old, he instructed me in the sciences, in which he was most profoundly versed. Indeed, at times, I could not avoid suspecting that his knowledge in the arts of nature was even greater than he thought it prudent to avow. I had a confused idea that he might be one of those philosophers who are in possession of secrets equally valuable and dangerous. This idea increased my awe; but I never ven-

tured to hint it to him left I might have offended him, or loft his company and friendship to gratify an idle curiosity. He continued, on this one subject excepted, to treat me with the most unreserved considence till the time of my father's death; when I looked up to him as the only friend who could confole me for his loss.

At this time, when my heart was foftened with grief, and disposed to solitude, he took me with him to some distance from the metropolis, to a retirement of which I had often heard him speak with delight. It was, in reality, a charm. ing fpot; rich in all the beauties of nature, and highly cultivated by the hand of art. After any irreparable misfortune has been severely felt, a species of calm succeeds in the mind. I now experienced a kind of philosophic melancholy, which, though fomewhat painful, I was fond of cherishing. In one of these thoughtful moments, towards the close of the evening, as I was fitting alone with the good old man, my fecond father, I may almost call him, he addressed me with uncommon feriousness, urging me to tell him the plan which I had formed for my future life. Struck with the fuddenness of a question, on which I had scarcely deliberated, I hesitated to reply. "I have not," faid I, after some recollection, "as vet formed any determined refolution, probably from not being compelled to it by necessity. You know the success of my father's industry; the fruits of it he has left to me; and finding myfelf possessed of a more than affluent fortune, a fair hereditary name, yout. alth, an active mind, and one of the best of friends, I feem to have little care in life but to enjoy its bleffings." "But how fecurely to enjoy those bleffings," faid my inftructor, " is the question. You doubtless wish to be happy, and you believe the means to be in your power; but recollect scenes which we have observed together in the metropolis, which we have just quitted. How many are there in possession of the very things which you boast of, and who are vet languid, discontented, and miserable. That happiness, which is in the power of so many, why is it not enjoyed? or rather, in what does it confift? Recollect, and tell me who do you believe to be the happiest man you know?" I readily replied, " Of all men I have ever feen, you appear to be the happiest; and yet I cannot precisely thermometers.

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tell the reason why I think so. Active as you are, you are not young: you do not post-is any visible figns of wealth; your way of life precludes von from all the gratifications of public admiration, and yet the unalterable ferenity of your countenance, and cheerfulness of your manner, convince me that you are happy. Perhaps it may be to your superior knowledge and philosophy, that you owe your felicity. The confidence you are now shewing me, however, encourages me to mention another idea to you. From feveral circumstances, which have occurred fince we were first acquainted. and from some accidental expressions, which have dropt from you at different times, I conceived the notion that you were master of some very extraordinary secret; but I have always hitherto suppressed my curiosity on this subject, as I did not think it became me to penetrate farther into your confidence than you condescended to admit me." "You have," faid he, casting upon me a look of approbation, "fully merited my confidence, and it shall be no longer withheld. It is true I am in possession of a secret, a secret which I may deem invaluable; it has been the purchase of many years toil and experience, the reward of the labour and experience of a long life. I am a native of Italy, and my life has been spent chiefly in travelling through different countries. There is no part of the globe which I have not at some period or other visited, having uniformly kept one object in view, to which, thank Heaven! I have at last attained. You know" continued he, "my friendship to your father, and my particular attachment to you. I wish to give you fome proof of my regard before nature calls me from you; and I think I have it in my power to leave you a gift truly worthy of your acceptance." Here he paufed, and drew carefully from beneath his vestment a small golden chain, which was fastened round his neck, but which he readily opened. There hung from it a small tube of chrystal, or rather of some substance which I had never feen before; it inclosed fomething, which I concluded was a talifman, until the old man drew it out of its case, and put it into my hands; upon a nearer view, it appeared to me nothing more than a fmall instrument constructed like one of our common L12 thermometers,

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thermometers, and marked into a great number of divisions. After I had examined it in filence for some time, my friend took it from me, and replaced it in his bosom, when inflantly a fresh phenomenon appeared; innumerable new divisions became visible. "There are many more," faid my friend, observing my astonishment-" there are many more too nice to be discerned by the unaffisted eye of man; but the longer and the more attentively you regard them, the more you will be enabled to discover." " But what is this liquor," faid I, " or is it a liquor, which feems to move up and down in the tube? and what are those small characters which I perceive at the top and bottom of the instrument." "The bright characters which you perceive at the top of the chrystal are Arabic," said he, " and they signify, perfect felicity. The degrees, which you fee marked upon the chrystal, form a scale of happiness, gradually descending from perfect felicity to indifference, which is the boundary between pleafure and pain; and from thence commence the dark divifions of mifery, which continue deepening in their shades as they descend, and increasing in magnitude, till they touch the black characters at the bottom, which fignify the final bounds of human mifery, despair. The liquor, which you fee contained in the tube," continued he, " is endued with the faculty of rifing or falling in the chrystal, in exact proportion to the pleasure or pain felt by the person who wears it, at any given period of his existence. I cast my eye down on the tube as he held it in his hand-" Perfect felicity! and Despair"-I repeated and fighed, how many of my fellow creatures are doom'd to feel the one, how few attain to the other. "Those extreme points" faid the good old man, recalling my eye to the tube, " though apparently fo far distant from each other, are equally dangerous, for beyond them the liquor can neither rise nor descend, without burfting the instrument; it will seldem however be found actually to touch these extremes, and the intermediate degrees it defines with unerring precision." "But, " faid I, is it not sufficient for me to feel pleasure, to be convinced that I feel it, and will not a little reflection afcertain the degree with fufficient accuracy"? " Perhaps not, " faid he, fmiling.

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fmiling at my prefumption, " perhaps not fo readily as you imagine. The want of precision, in this circumstance, is one of the first causes of the mistakes which mankind fall into, in their pursuits, especially the young and the enthufiaftic; reflecting little on the past, and forming great expectations on the future, they feldom rightly value their present sensations; guided by the opinion or examples of others, they mistake the real objects of happiness, and the experiments necessary to be tried to set them right, must be fo often repeated, to make any useful impression, that life passes away before they are convinced of their errors, or before the conviction has become of any material advantage to them. Now, such is the nature of this little instrument, that if you wear it next to your heart, it will invariably preserve its efficacy, in all the fituations of life, in the most tumultuous affembly, as well as in the most tranquil solitude. At the moment when your foul is the most agitated, when your emotions are the most complicated, when you would not, or could not enter into a strict scrutiny of your own heart, this little chrystal will be your monitor; pressit to your bosom, and ask yourself this question; what degree of pleasure or of pain do I now feel? the answer you will find distinct and decided, the liquor in the tube will instantaneously point it out upon the scale of happiness or mifery; it will remain stationary, until you unlock the chain from around your neck, in your hours of retirement." Here I began to comprehend the true use and value of this present, and repenting my hasty judgment, I expressed in the warmest terms my acknowledgment. " Take it," my fon, faid he, putting it into my hands, " may you in the course of your life, experience its utility as much as I have done! may it facilitate your improvement in virtue and wildom, the only genuine fources of happiness; my life must now be near its close, my habits are fixed, and I have no further occasion for this chrystal monitor; yet it has been so long my conftant companion, that I can scarcely part with it, without reluctance, even to you; promise me however, added he, " to fend me frequent and accurate accounts of the experiments you try with it, they will be an amule-L13 ment,

ment to me in my retirement." I readily made my friend the promise which he required, and having again thanked him for his present, I eagerly clasped the golden chain round my neck, and resolved to begin, as soon as possible, a series of observations upon my mental Thermometer.

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EARLY PROGRESS OF GREAT MEN.

Number I. A more taday of and

THE CHILDHOOD OF GASSENDI.

If it be curious and satisfactory to a lover of nature to watch the development of a plant or an insect, it would be still more to for the thoughtful and attentive philosopher to watch the first rays of intelligence in a child, and the first emotions of the heart. It may perhaps be conjectured what a man will be in the evening of his life by studying its morning. Might it not be discerned that Hercules would be a hero, from seeing him strangle the serpents in his cradle?

I was lately reading the life of the celebrated Gaffendi, and I was pleafed that the hittorian had preferved a valuable trait of his childhood. Gaffendi, whilst playing with his young companions, already announced what he would

one day become.

He was born on the 22d of January, 1592, at Chanterfier, a little village of Provence, in the diocese of Digne. His father's name was Antony Gassend, and his mother's Frances Fabre. They were worthy people, more distinguished by the probity and gentleness of their manners than by their birth and situation. Their son was called Peter Gassend, a name which the learned have changed into that of Gassendi, by which he is now known. Gassendi could scarcely speak when he caught all that he heard, adding to it things that he imagined himself. At the age of sour years he declaimed little sermons. As he grew bigger the scenes of nature made a strong impression upon him. He

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was particularly fensible to the magnificence of a starry fley. When only seven years old, he felt a secret charm in the contemplation of the stars, and, without the knowledge of his parents, he facrificed his fleep to this pleafure. One evening a dispute arose between him and his young companions about the motion of the moon and that of the clouds. His friends infifted that the clouds were ftill, and the moon moved. He maintained, on the contrary, that the moon had no fensible motion, and that it was the clouds that passed so swiftly. His reasons produced no effect on the minds of the children, who trusted to their own eyes rather than to what could be faid on the subject. It was therefore necessary to undeceive them by means of their eyes them-For this purpose Gassendi took them under a tree, and made them observe that the moon still appeared between the fame leaves, while the clouds failed away out of fight.

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His father was fo ftruck with these happy dispositions, that he resolved to cultivate them. He spoke to the clergyman of his parish, who engaged to give him the first elements of letters. This was the food that the mind of young Gaffendi demanded, and he applied to ftudy with formuch ardour, that not contented with working in the day, he also studied during part of the night by the light of the church lamp. His progress was extremely rapid. At the end of three years he understood and spoke Latin very well. M. de Boulogne, bishop of Digne, coming upon a visitation to Chanterfier, Gaffendi, who was then only ten years old, harangued him in Latin with fo much grace and vivacity, that the prelate, equally furprized and charmed with his premature talents, faid aloud: "That child will one day be the wonder of his time, and before he has attained the age of maturity, he will be cause of admiration to the learned."

^{***} Our young readers we hope will be encouraged from the above to look into the life of Gassendi. If they are not possessed of a larger biography, they will find a sketch of it in Dr. Watkins's Biographical Dictionary.

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(Continued from vol. II. page 43.)

ON the following days they employed themselves in planting flowers and fweet fmelling fhrubs round their cabin. But one day, as they were returning to their habitation with plants of violets and strawberries to let in the borders, what was their grief when they perceived, at a distance, a goat, which had strayed from the rest of the flock, and, penetrating into the midst of their garden, was browzing without mercy on the young shoots of their trees and shrubs. Furious at the fight, Louis, Paul, and Honorius, immediately began to pick up sticks and stones, and ran to attack the hated beaft. "What are you going to do?" faid Joseph, who was with them. "Do you not confider that by terrifying the animal with your blows you will make him commit still greater mischief? Do you standfill, and let me go round to the bottom of the garden, and

drive it out gently."

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Happily the damage was not confiderable, and was foon repaired. But this accident made the children perceive the necessity of inclosing their property in such a manner as toprotect it from future invasions. The stream, which furrounded two-thirds of it with a femicircular bend, already formed a very sufficient sence to these parts, particularly as the bank was much higher on the fide nearest to the garden than on the other. It then only remained to inclose the space opening to the fide of the meadow. This space was about thirty feet, feparating the two angles of the brook. But how were they to fence in so great a distance? A council was held on this important point. Louis ad vifed making a dry hedge with branches of thorns, held together between thick flakes. But they foon discovered the difficulty of this conftruction of thorns, and it would have presented but a melancholy appearance. Paul proposed to dig a trench, and to plant on the farther fide some young plants of thorns, which they might transplant from the

Godewinfide they dug a cellar, and feveral little cupboards

wood, and which, when grown large, would make an excellent quick. But till this hedge had reached to a confiderable height the garden would have remained defenceless. Honorius said, that nothing would be necessary but a fence made with planks, stretched from stakes placed at equal distances. But this the goats and sheep might easily have got through. What then was to be done?

"I can tell you," faid Joseph, " of an inclosure which I have observed in several countries that I have passed through, and with the fimplicity of which I was greatly struck. It is a fort of live hedge, which grows in a very fhort time, and which, from the very moment of its plantation, forms a fence equally firm and pleafing to the eye. They begin by opening a trench of about a foot in depth. In this trench they plant, a foot diftant from each other, stakes or cuttings of willows, poplars, or ofiers, about fix feet high, observing to place one row bending obliquely from left to right; and a fecond row, croffing the other, bending from right to left, so that these poles croffing each other, and tied together at every joint with a band of ofier, present the appearance of a lozenge-shaped lattice. The trench is then filled with the earth which had been taken out of it, and it is trodden down in fuch a manner as to render the whole pallifade firm. The poles, buried a foot deep in fresh earth like this, immediately take root, and fend out a great number of branches, which fill up all the intervals. When supported, besides, by some strong stakes, they form a barrier firm the first year, and impenetrable the fecond."

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This kind of fence was unanimously approved by the children, and to make it was their employment for five or fix days. In the middle of this pallisade, and opposite to the principal walk, they did not forget to contrive an entrance, shutting with an hurdle turning upon a pivot, to which Joseph knew how to adapt a kind of wooden lock. Thus shut up and defended without, our young solitaries only thought of tending and adorning the inside of their little hermitage. They shut up their cabin with a little door of wicker-work, which was raised and put down at pleasure. On the inside they dug a cellar, and several little cupboards

to hold their provisions. On each fide of the door they raifed a bench of turf to fit down upon at their leifure moments, and enjoy the pleasing fight of their own creation. At the feet of the young trees, on each fide of the great walk, they planted vine cuttings, which would in time, firetch in garlands from one trunk to another. They also fet raspberry and gooseberry bushes along the fence, to

render it at once more firm and more uleful.

In the mean time the fun, rifing higher and higher over our hemisphere, had begun to dry up the moisture of the earth necessary for vegetation. The plants, which had already taken root, began to languish. The children thought of no other method of watering them than by bringing from the farm a bucket, which they filled at the brook, and afterwards emptied upon the plants which drooped the most. But it may be easily imagined that this method was both tedious and laborious. It was as much as two of them could do to carry this bucket two-thirds full of water, a great part of which was spilled by the way. Joseph, seeing their distress, came again to their affistance. "You give yourselves a great deal of trouble there," said he, "though there is a much simpler way of procuring as much water as you please in the midst of your own garden." "And how are we to manage that, Joseph?" "You see that the ftream is only about four feet deep below your garden. Well, make a hole of this depth in whatever place you please, and you will immediately see the water flow into it, and maintain itself on the same level as in the brook." "How can it pass from the brook into the hole?" "Water is composed of parts so minute, that they easily filtre through the earth, even to more considerable diffances. In confequence of their extreme tenuity, these particles, being also infinitely mobile and of equal weight, always tend to place themselves on a level in every place with which they have any communication; for the fame reason that you see two equal weights in a balance remain in equilibrio." "But when our hole is made, how shall we manage to draw water out of it? The labour will be ftill the same?" "I will then show you a method of

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making it easier." "In that case we will make one near our house; that will be in the centre of the garden."

Accordingly they immediately prepared to open a little trench in the form of a pit, about three feet broad; and when they had dug it to the depth of the stream, they faw the bottom of it directly filled with water. But how was it to be drawn out? Joseph planted near it a ftrong pole. forking out at the top, in the form of a V, and placed upon it another pole, to the two extremities of which he had tied two ropes made of willow bark. Then having suspended the bucket from one of these ropes, and placed the pole transversely on its support, he let down the bucket into the well, and when he faw it full, he bid Honorius, the youngest of the children, pull the other rope. He pulled up the bucket with one hand, without the flightest effort. "O how light it is!" cried he: "this bucket, that two of us together had fo much difficulty in carrying, is now fcarcely any weight at all!" Paul and Louis wished also to convince themselves by experience of this fact, which they could not believe. They came to draw water in their turn, but Joseph having moved the pole on its support, a new fubject of aftonishment arose; they could scarcely raise the bucket with their utmost strength. " Why, how is this?" faid they; "we two cannot do what Honorius has just done alone!" Joseph immediately replaced the pole in its first situation, and desired them to try again, when the bucket rose directly, without the smallest resistance.

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(To be continued.)

FIRST PRIZE ESSAY,

On the Subject for No. 12, of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR,

BY MASTER AARON ASHER GOLDSMID,
AGED 15 YEARS AND SEVEN MONTHS.

Son of Asher Goldsmid, Fsq. of Leman-street, London; and private pupil of Dr. Montucci.

E are happy or miserable in this world in proportion as we restrain from vicious pursuits, and as we conform our actions agreeably to the circumstances in which

we are placed, and to the variety of objects that furround us. That study, therefore, must be of the utmost importance, which affords us an innocent amusement at the same time that it introduces us to the knowledge of our own being, and to our connexion with the other parts of the creation, and which impresses us with gratitude and veneration towards our Creator.

There is, perhaps, no study more interesting or attractive than natural history; for can he who looks about him with the least curiosity patiently pass away his life in ignorance of facts, the knowledge of which may be so easily acquired? Will he not rather feel an ardent desire of scrutinizing minutely the objects among which he lives, and, if he have a mind capable of investigation, will he not be eagerly occupied with the beauties of nature? Besides, to an attentive contemplation of these painting and sculpture owe their origin; and where would be the charms of poetry, if divested of the embellishments which it receives from rural scenes?

This fludy is also connected with sciences which constitute the greater part of the comforts and enjoyments of life, and it fixes on our minds a most important duty of morality and religion, that of avoiding cruelty towards animals; for who can view the innocent fleep without pity, or the playful lamb without emotions of tenderness? And when we are interested in their gratifications, we shall no longer be indifferent to their fufferings, or wantonly inftrumental in producing them. The flory of Count Lauzun may tend to prove this, who, when confined in the Castle of Pignerol, by Lewis the Fourteenth, amused himself during a long period of time with catching flies, and delivering them to be devoured by a rapacious spider; such a conduct was entirely inconsistent with his former and subsequent turn of mind; but his cell had no window, and only received a glimmering light from an aperture in the roof: and thus as his being deprived of the view of nature rendered him inhumane, may we not reasonably conclude that her beauties must have a benignant influence over the passions? And confequently that fludy which enables us to relish them properly,

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properly, must improve the mind and ameliorate the

But the greatest utility and advantage resulting from a contemplation of the works of God, and from gaining such a knowledge of them as the weakness and imperfection of our faculties will admit, are to teach us to love and to reverence him; for as we see such power, wisdom, and goodness displayed in this, the least considerable part of the creation, we naturally infer how great, how wise, and how good must be be, who made and governs the whole.

I declare that the above is my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not older that 15 years and feven months.

AARON ASHER GOLDSMID.

Attestations.

I folemnly declare, to the best of my knowledge, that Aaron Asher Goldsmid, aged 15 years and seven months, has not received any affistance in the above essay, either by explanation, suggestion, correction, or in any way directly or indirectly.

ASHER GOLDSMID.

No. 21, Leman-freet, London, Jan. 4, 1801.

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I fully and most solemnly attest the same.

ANTONIO MONTUCCI, private mafter.

PRIZE TRANSLATION

Of a Letter from the Younger Pliny to Tacitus, concerning the Death of his Uncle.

By Master J. CROSSE, NOT 15 YEARS OF AGE.

Son of J. N. Croffe, of Hull, and of the Seminary at Thorp-

Pliny to Tacitus, greeting.

A CTUATED by the desire of transmitting to posterity a faithful account of the circumstances attending the death of my uncle, you request me to render you the necessary information respecting it. I feel myself much indebted to you for this request, and the more especially so, because his death will be rendered eternally glorious, if it shall be Vot. II.

M m celebrated

celebrated by so able a pen as your's. For although he together with many other people and cities, perished by a memorable misfortune, which overwhelened feveral beautiful territories, and which will alone ferve to render him illustrious; although he himfelf has composed many lasting monuments of his fame, yet the immortality attached to your productions will confer a ftill greater degree of celebrity upon his name. In my opinion those persons are to be effeemed happy, on whom the gods have bestowed either the ability of performing actions worthy to be recorded, or of composing works deserving of perusal; but more especially those who are endowed with both these precious gifts. In the number of these will my uncle be reckoned, both on account of your works and his own. I therefore more willingly undertake what you require me, fince I should have done it even if you had not made the request.

He was then at Misenum, and held the actual command of the fleet. On the 24th of August, about ten o'clock, P.M. he was apprized by my mother that a cloud of an unusual fize and aspect had just appeared. After having walked in the fun, he had gone into the cold-bath, taken some refreshment, and retired to his study. But upon this information he put on his fandals, and afcended an eminence, from whence he might more clearly behold this wonderful phe-He there viewed the cloud which had arisen, and which, from its fimilarity of form, I can compare to nothing more fuitably than a pine; for rifing into the air like the stem of that tree, it afterwards became divided into feveral branches; but it was impossible for the distant beholders to difcern from whence it received its birth, although it was afterwards known to have arisen from Mount Vefuvius. It is most probable that it acquired this shape by being upheld by a fudden guft of wind, upon the failure of which, wanting fomething to support it, or perhaps being borne down by its own gravity, it became compressed into a mass, which in some parts assumed a whitish, in others a dusky and spotted appearance, according to the proportions it contained of earth or ashes. Its striking appearance in bather duced this learned man to observe it more narrowly; he seque therefore ireaks thre flamed in many places from Veluvius, the

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therefore ordered a fwift failing galley to be got ready, and gave me permission to accompany him. I replied, that I had rather attend to my ftudies, and, as it happened, he had previously given me a subject to write upon. At his departure from the house he received a letter, fignifying that the Claffiarii of Retina, terrified at the imminent danger they were in for the villa lay under the mountain, nor had they the means of escaping but by sea), intreated his aid to rescue them from impending destruction. He remained firm in his defign, and ftedfaftly purfued what he had fo fudiously begun; however, he ordered out the gallies, and went on board himself, not with a view to affilt Retina only, but also many others, whom the beauty and pleasantness of the coast had invited to reside there. He hastened immediately to those places which others had deserted; and so calm and composed withal, that he was enabled to obherve and notice all the various appearances of this remarkable phenomenon. And now, in proportion as the ships advanced, the ashes, and even the pumice-stones, together with the black half-burnt fragments of rock, fell thicker and hotter around them; the sea suddenly became shallow, and the shore was obstructed by the ruins of the mountain. Having stopped to consider whether he should turn, back, he at length cried out to the pilot, who advised him to do 6, " Fortune favours the brave : convey me to Pomponianus," Pomponianus happened then to be at Stabiæ, sparated from the main land by a gulph, which the feahad gradually formed, by winding in upon the shore. int bethat time, although the danger was not immediate, yet my th, aluncle had fent his baggage on board the ships, with a deter-Mount mination to fail forth, if there had not been a contrary ape by wind; but this wind, at the same time, favouring his paslure of fage to Stabiæ, he steered thither, and in a short time safely s being arrived. He kindly embraced and comforted Pomponianus, ed into who was in extreme trepidation; and in order fill further others? to calm his fear by his own apparent fecurity, he comportions manded himself to be conducted to the bath. After having more in bathed, he sat down to supper, and was cheerful, or, what why; he sequally great, appeared to be so. In the mean time broad herefore treaks of fire slamed in many places from Vesuvius, the

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lucid appearance of which was much heightened by the darkness of the night; but he, to quiet their apprehensions. told them that it was only the deferted houses of the villagers which had taken fire. He then retired to rest, and fell into a most found sleep; for his snoring, which was more loud and fonorous on account of his bulk, was heard by those who watched without. But the area, into which the bedchamber opened, became at length fo full of after and pumice-stones, that if he had remained any longer, it would have been impossible for him to have got out. However, being roused, he came forth, and joined Pompomianus and the others, who had not taken any reft. They then confulted together whether they should remain in the house or go out into the open air: they determined upon the latter, notwithstanding their fear of the pumice-stones, because the danger of the house falling (for it had already begun to thake and tremble from its foundation) was of much the most importance. My uncle determined upon this from motives of found reason, the others were actuated only by the fear of more immediate danger. After this determination they bound pillows on their heads with napkins, in order to protect themselves from the stones and after; and although by that time day had appeared in other places, yet there an almost impenetrable darkness prevailed, which, however, received fome little diminution from the light of the torches. They now resolved to go to the shore, and examine whether the sea, which had hitherto remained boisterous, would afford them the means of escaping. There, reclining upon a cloth, he repeatedly called for water, of which he drank. The flames, and the fmell of the fulphur preceding them, roufed him, and compelled the rest to depart. He rose, supporting himself upon two flaves, and immediately fell down dead; being oppreffed, as I conjecture, in his ftomach (which was always weak and tender), and not being able to breathe, by reason of the thick fulphureous vapours. When light returned, which was three days afterwards, his body was found entire and uncorrupted, in its proper apparel, and its appearance was more like that of a fleeping than that of a dead person. In the mean while my mother and I were at Mifenum. Bu this

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this concerns not your history, neither have you defired me to inform you of aught, except the death of my uncle. I will therefore conclude, only adding, that what has come under my own cognizance I have faithfully related, as well as what I have been informed of by others. But do you felect whatfoever you approve; for there is much difference between writing a letter and a history; the one is addressed to a friend, the other submitted to public inspection.

I declare the above to be my own, fole, and unaided production, and that I am not 15 years of age.

JOHN CROSSE!

Atteffation.

I declare the above to be my own fon's composition. He is a pupil of the Rev. J. Peers, of the seminary at Thorp-Arch, but now at home during the Christmas vacation, and he is not 15 years of age.

Hull, Jan. 13, 1800.

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J. N. CROSSE.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES

GIVEN WITH THE TWELFTH NUMBER.

CLASS I.

ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

" On the Study of Natural History."

The first prize has been awarded to Master AARON ASHER GOLDSMID, of Leman-street, Goodman's fields, aged 15 years and even months. Attested by his tutor, Dr. Montucci.

To receive a pair of twelve-inch Globes, value Three Guineas.

The second to Master THOMAS CURTIS, of Wishech, aged 13. Attested by Mr. Wright, his tutor.

To receive a Silver Medal, value Half-a-guinea.

The third to Miss SOPHIA TONGUE, of Mrs. Smallwood's school, Croom's-hill, aged 13 years and a half. Attested by Miss Smallwood.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Lives of Plutarch abridged.

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The fourth to Master THOMAS ALLIES, of Mr. Osborn's academy, Worcester, aged 15. Attested by Mr. Osborn.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The fifth to Mis MARY JECKS, of Wifbech, aged 15. Attested by her tutor, Mr. Wright.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The fixth to Master WILLIAM JOHNSON FOX, of Nor-wich, aged under 15. Attested by Mr. Wm. Saint.

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To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The feventh to Miss M. A. ORMSTON, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, not 16 years of age. Attested by her mother.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The eighth to Master H. WALTER, of Brigg School, Lincolnshire, aged 15. Attested by the master, Mr. Walter, and Rev. Mr. Cautley, rector of Roydon.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Education.

The ninth to Miss MARIA JANE WALDIE, of Newcassleupon-Tyne, not 15. Attested by her brother.

To receive Sturm's Reflections Abridged.

The tenth to Master WILLIAM THORPE, of Whittlesea, aged 12 years and three months. Attested by his tutor, the Rev. G. Burges.

To receive Allen's History of England.

Miss AUGUSTA BARCLAY, of Mrs. Smallwood's school, would have been entitled to a prize, had she not been above the specified age. The productions of Master EBENEZER OSBORNE, of Cork; of Master JOHN CROSSE, of the seminary Thorp-Arch; of Master JOSIAH CONDER, and of Miss CLEMENTIA PARKER aged only 11, are also excellent; and we cannot but regret that we had not more prizes to bestow on these promising candidates.

The following are also deserving of COMMENDATION:

Master Major Ainger, not 15 years of age, of the Rev. G. Burges's academy, Whittlesea.

Master Robert White Almond, not 14, of the Rev. Mr. Blanchard's academy, Nottingham.

Master William Bingley, aged 14 years and seven months, of Mr. Falconer's academy, Boncaster.

Master

Master

Mater John Brown, aged 15 years and 10 months, of the Grammar School, Barnard Castle, Yorkshire.

Mister John Button, aged 14 years and one month, of the seminary, Thorp-Arch, Yorkshire.

Naster John Cox, not 16, of Hermes-street, Pentonville.

Naster W. R. Clayton, aged 14 and upwards, son of Sir R. Clayton, Bart. pupil of the Rev. E. Lloyd, of Silchester.

Master W. F. Drake, aged 14 years and eight months, of All Saints, Norwich.

Miss Elizabeth Ryland Dent, aged 12, of Mrs. Dent's boardingschool, Northampton.

Master George Edwards, aged 14 years and fix months, of the Grammar School, Barnard Cattle, Yorkshire.

Master Joseph Ewens, aged 13 years and a half, of the Rev. Mr. Paul's aeademy, Castle Cary.

Miss Henrietta Eyre, aged 12 years and eight months, of Reading. Master Joseph Fallowsfield, aged 14 years and three months, of the Grammar School, Barnard Catale, Yorkshire.

Master Thomas Forster, aged 15 years and fix months, of the same

Mafter Henry William Hentig, not 14, of Hull Academy.

Master John Hird, aged 14 years and three months, of the Grammar School, Barnard Castle, Yorkshire.

Master Henry Jones, under 14 years of age, of Mr. Newby's academy, Burningham, Yorkshire.

Miss Sarah Kempson, of Birmingham, aged 14, late pupil of Miss Robins, Worcester.

Miss Jane Lewis, not 16, of North Baddesley, Hants.

Master Thomas Lewis, aged 15 years and six months, of George-ffreet, Westminster.

Miss S. D. Metcalf, not 16, attested by her mother, Susan Metcalf. Master Richard Nanton, aged 15, of Messrs. Palmer's academy, Hackney.

Miss Caroline Parken, aged 10, daughter of Mr. D. Parken. Master Charles Pearce, not 14, of Merchant Taylor's School.

Master John Raban, aged 12 years, son of Mr. Raban, baker, Olney, Bucks.

Master Thomas Reed, not yet 13 years of age, of Mr. Newby's academy, Birmingham, Yorkshire.

Master H. N. Rickman, aged 14, of Lewes, Suffex.

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Matter Thomas Ridley, under 14 years of age, of Burningham, Yorkshire.

Master John Slancomb, under 13 years and a half, of Trowbridge. Master William Shingleton, not 16 years of age, late pupil of Mr. Mitchell.

Miss Mary Vowell, aged 13 years and 10 months, of New Kingfireet, Bath.

Miss Margaret Watson, aged 14 years and 10 months, of Barnard Cattle, Yorkshire.

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CLASS II.

GENERAL ADJUDICATION OF THE PRIZES ON THE SECONS

TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

The first prize has been adjudged to Master JOHN CROSSE, of the seminary Thorp-Arch, aged under 15. Attested by his father.

To receive a Cabinet Library, value Two Guineas.

The second to Master JAMES CROWTHER, of Nottingham Academy. Attested by the master, Mr. Hallifax.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Natural History.

The third to Master WILLIAM MILLS, of Buntingford School, aged 12. Attested by the master, Mr. Drewe.

To receive Evenings at Home, part 1, 2, 3.

The fourth to Master G. EDWARDS, of Barnard Castle Grammar School, aged 14 years and seven months, Attested by the head master, Mr. Barnes.

To receive Dr. Gregory's Elements of a Polite Edu-

The fifth to Master HENRY LUCAS, of Gosport Academy, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Cumyns, classical assistant.

To receive Dr. Mavor's Plutarch.

The fixth to Master R. WHITE ALMOND, of Mr. Blanchard's academy, Nottingham, aged 14. Attested by the Rev. Mr. Hallifax, classical assistant.

To receive Irvine's Elements of Proface Composition.

The seventh to Master WILLIAM BURN, of Gosport Academy, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Cumyns, classical affittant.

To receive Dr. Mavor's British Nepos.

The eighth to Master HENRY BIDEN, Barningham Academy, Yorkshire, aged 12. Attested by Mr. Newby, the master.

To receive Dr. Goldsmith's History of England.

The following are deferving of COMMENDATION:

Master Nathaniel Walker, of Magdalen School, Oxford.

Master John Pearson Wood, of Barnard Castle School, aged 12 years

and eight months.

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MATHEMATICAL QUESTIONS.

IT is with great concern that we delay the distribution of the prizes for the mathematical questions proposed in December and November, and we must express our furprize at the occasion. Each of the two queltions proposed a very useful exercise to young perfons; the one in the art of measuring, the other in navigation. The importance of a knowledge of these arts to a valt class of perfons in these kingdoms, seemed to insure to us a laudable degree of emulation to obtain the prizes: but we are compelled to observe, that the number of candidates is not equal to the number of prizes. We shall, therefore, leave both questions open to all, whether they have obtained prizes or not, and give two months for the performance of the exercise; in which time we flatter ourselves that we shall have such specimens of the knowledge of these arts in our schools as will be gratifying to the public, and creditable to both mafters and scholars. The answers to the two questions are to be fent to Mr. Hurst, on or before the 5th day of April. Hopeochia V. and adoption of the Sparity of the Stationard and the contract of

NEW PRIZE SUBJECTS FOR No. XIV.

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Answers to be received, post paid, and fully authenticated, on or before the Fifth of March.

CLASS I.

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EXERCISE IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR SIXTEENTH YEAR.

It is required to give, in the form of a Letter, a narrative of an imaginary tour from London to Edinburgh, the supposed traveller proceeding in whatever way he thinks proper; in a carriage, on horseback, or on foot, and by whatever route; and to describe the most remarkable objects of curiosity in every principal place through which he is supposed to pass.

The best letter to entitle the writer to a pair of twelve-inch globes, value three guineas; the next best to a silver medal, value ten shillings and sixpence; and the eight next best to books value sive shillings each.

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TRANSLATION FROM THE LATIN.

FOR YOUNG LADIES AND GENTLEMEN WHO HAVE NOT COMPLETED THEIR FIFTEENTH YEAR.

> A Translation of the following, " De Poetica fine et Utilitate."

Verum de Poetica a huc levius omnino et humilius, quam eius dignitas postulat, existimabimus, nisi eo demum convertamus animos, unde ejus magnitudo maxime elucet; nisi eam in facris verfantem, et Religioni ministrantem contemplemur. Hoc primum ei negotium datum est; hoc ita feliciter exequitur, ut in cæteris rebus impositam quandam personam gerere videatur, hic solummodo suam; alibi enim ad artis subsidia semper confugere, hic propria vi niti, aut potius spiritu vere divino sustentari. Quid enim habet universa Poefis, quid concipere potest mens humana grandius, excelsius, ardentius; quid etiam venustius et elegantius, quam quæ in sacris Hebræorum Vatum scriptis occurrunt? qui magnitudinem rerum fere ineffabilem verborum pondere et carminis majestate exæquant; quorum cum nonnulli vel ibsis Græcorum poetarum fabulis sint antiquiores, ita omnes tantum eos sublimitate exsuperant, quantum vetustate antiquissimi antecedunt. Quod si ipsius Poeseos ultima origo quæratur, ad Religionem omnino videtur referenda. cum sit facultas a natura profecta, præceptis et legibus non nisi sero conformata, non ætatis alicujus aut gentis propria, sed universi humani generis; vehementioribus humanæ mentis Affectibus necesfario tribuenda est: quorum'ea est natura, ut fele efferant vocibuselatis, ardentihus, maximeque a vulgari fermonis ufu abhorrentibus; nec minus æquabilem illum continuæ locutionis tenerem impetu fuo dirumpunt et diftinguunt intervallis; l'ententias acres, incitatas, vibrantes, crebris veluti ictibus contorquent; et orationem promotu et habitu animi varie intercidunt, et quodammodo modulantur. Hoc in Admiratione et Gaudio vel maxime locum habet; et quid erat quod hominis jam tum creati mentem, opinionum vanitate nondum depravatam, adeo vehementer potuit percellere, ac, quæ tum el plane obversata est, Dei Optimi Maximi bonitas, sapientia, et magnitudo? quid verifimilius, quam primum inconditi carminis conatum in Creatoris landes iplo exardelcentis animi impetu erupisse? Id certe minime dubium est, eildem in facris enutritam fuisse Poeticam, in quibus nata videtur : obire templa, adesse altaribus, prima ei et propria quædam occupatio fuit : et cum religiones in variis gentibus atque ætatibus diverliffimæ obtinuerint, in hoc ta-

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men omnes consensisse accepimus, ut bymnis et carminibus celebrarentur. Hujusce originis non obseura indicia etiamnum præ fe fert Poesis, eo quod sacram et cælestem materiam veluti parentem foam et educatricem ardentissimo affectu semper amplectatur; huc veluti ad germanam patriam amet recurrere, ibique et lubentissime verletur, et maxime vigeat,-Lowth de Sac. Poef. Pralect. I.

The best translation to be entitled to a Cabinet Library, value two guineas; the feven next belt to books, value five shillings . Vehanoute Poetics and at Liver Machine is Leading, quin this

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to multiple and COMMERCIAL SUBJECT. and so another

To the Editors of the MONTHLY PRECEPTOR.

GENTLEMEN,

THE good effects and influence of the Monthly Preceptor on the minds of young people I have had occasion to remark, though my pursuits are purely commercial. I perceive, by observations to Correspondents in your last number, that there may be many young minds on tiptoe to display their abilities in the arrangement of mercantile accounts. If consident with your plan, I beg leave to propose a question, and attach a reward in money to the performance of it. You will call upon me for five guineas, and act as you think proper in making my intentions known to the youths who may defire to become candidates.

I remain, Gentlemen, with mon stampointon Your obedient fervant, sinning iffitte

Throgmorton-fireet, No. 4, Angel-court, Dec. 10, 1800.

J. FRASER.

mos, underens macmitude

magni distensi putti QUESTION.

fue diremount or deed In Wicks's Book-keeping, page 69 to page 87, is the history of Antonio Prettyman's business, during the year 1798. It is required to produce a Journal, Ledger, Bill-book, and Cash-book, bound together, which will display the loss or gain on his transactions during that year; and also a new inventory of his flock and debts at the conclusion. The loss or gain must be proved to be correctly stated by the form which he (Wicks) recommends to be attached to the Journal Entries for ascertaining the balance of the merchants debits and credits, as per Instructions, page 17, 19, ous nata viderung. obire templa, adesie al diliona

The nearest and most correct books to be entitled to two guineas... and a silver medal, value ten shillings and sixpence; the second best

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to one guinea and a filver medal, value ten shillings and sixpence; and the third best to sixteen shillings and a silver medal, value sive shillings.

The books, properly attested, to be delivered in, on, or before the fifth of June, 1801, and in the first page to exhibit the following affertion.

- 44 Antonio Prettyman's neat property at the conclusion of the year 1798, is
- The profit (or lofs) upon this trade the same year amounts to

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** It would be very inconfishent with that honest zeal which, we trust, we feel for the improvement of our young readers, if we did not strongly express our acknowledgments to Mr. FRASER for his great liberality. If the same laudable ardour, which he has evinced for diffusing instruction, pervaded the higher classes of society, there cannot be a doubt but that both the knowledge and industry of the rising generation would be greatly increased, and of consequence their morals and conduct be proportionally improved.

GRAND CONTEST

OF

SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES.

The first prize in the fixteenth number will be only open to such candidates as have received first or second prizes in any of the three classes since the first institution of the Preceptor, or whose essays, though not first or second, have been printed; and the subject will be,

What are the respective merits of the Antients and Moderns in Science and Literature? In what Arts and Sciences, and in what branches of Literature did the Antients particularly excel; and in what are the Moderns superior to them?

The papers to be received on or before the 5th of May.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The letter figned "An Enemy to Imposture," is disposed of in the manner which appears most likely to be useful to the candidate alluded to in it.

GENERAL

GENERAL INDEX

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